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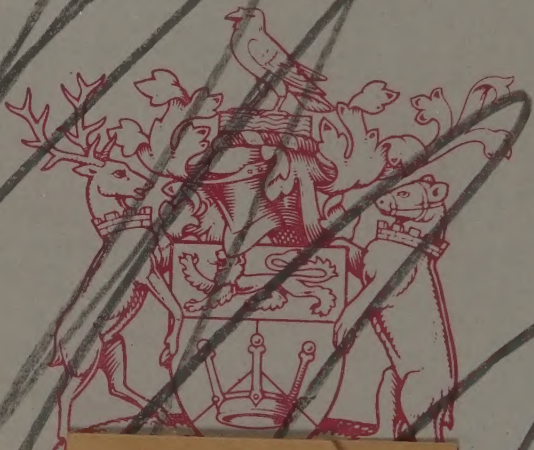

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THE LIFE OF A CENTURY.

THE LIFE OF A CENTURY.

1800 TO 1900.

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BY

EDWIN HODDER.

WITH FIVE HUNDRED AND NINETEEN ILLUSTRATIONS.

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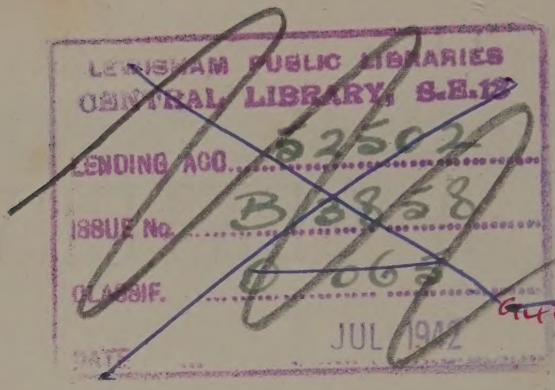
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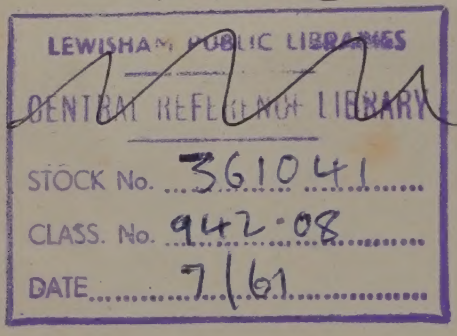
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PREFACE.

The idea of this work is to give a readable narrative of the state of Great Britain and her Dependencies at the beginning of the Nineteenth Century, in relation to Politics, Religion, Ethics, Trade and Commerce, Art, Science, Literature, Philanthropy, Sociology, Sports and Pastimes, Music and the Drama, and to trace the development of these subjects throughout the past hundred years. There is brought into the work the whole "life," or "doings," or "affairs" of the century, and an endeavour has been made to give an account of every great movement and every great worker in all departments of thought and action.

In the sections relating to arts, sciences, discoveries, and inventions, I have received the valuable assistance of well-known literary and scientific friends, specialists on recondite subjects, all of whose contributions, however, I have re-written and incorporated into the body of the work, by their permission, in order to secure continuity of style, consecutiveness of narrative, and, as far as possible, freedom from technical terms.

To give interest and vivacity to the story I have not hesitated to avail myself of the writings of historians of the period, and have laid under contribution whatever information of an interesting kind I could obtain from trustworthy sources. To my friend, Mr. J. A. J. Housden, I owe a special debt of gratitude for general assistance.

For serial purposes the work has been written in progressive sections; in order therefore to make the "Life of a Century" valuable as a book of reference, a copious index and classification of the subjects dealt with will be found at the end of the volume.

EDWIN HODDER.

Heatherdene,
South Croydon.

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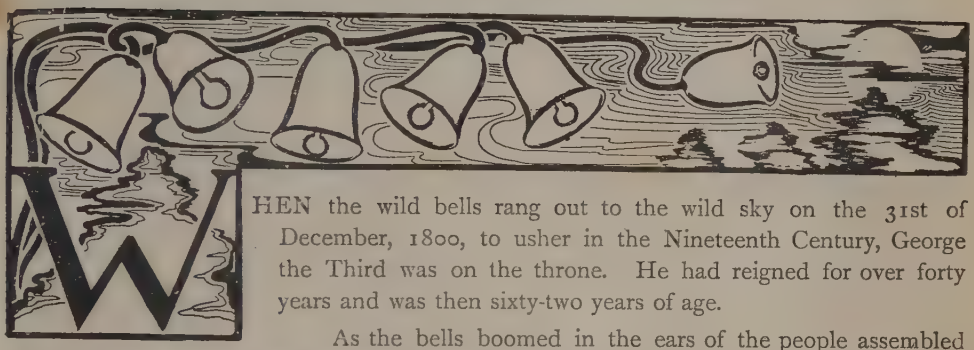
FOR KING AND COUNTRY.

THE LIFE OF A CENTURY.

CHAPTER I.

THE ROYAL FAMILY.

"WHEN GEORGE THE THIRD WAS KING."



WHEN the wild bells rang out to the wild sky on the 31st of December, 1800, to usher in the Nineteenth Century, George the Third was on the throne. He had reigned for over forty years and was then sixty-two years of age.

As the bells boomed in the ears of the people assembled in their homes to wish one another 'a happy New Year,' there were tens of thousands who would utter, as the prayer of their hearts, the words "God bless the King." For the people *loved* the King, and reverenced him; no phrase of love or veneration seemed to be thought too strong to apply to him: they called him "the dear good King" and "the best of men." He was the idol of the people, for he was an out-and-out Englishman, born on British soil, and in his first speech in Parliament, forty years agone, he had proclaimed the fact that he gloried in the name of *Briton*.

And on the whole the people were right; in many respects he deserved their love and reverence and idolatry; he was a man of exemplary life and undoubted piety, who sought to improve the morals of the country, and purify the whole nation at a time when he was surrounded by a court society almost as dissolute as any our country ever knew. Debauchery and extravagance reigned supreme; dissoluteness abounded; racing, dancing, gambling and drinking were pursued with eagerness; but the King held on in his quiet way, setting an example to all by his moderation, his frugal simplicity, and his God-fearing life.

It was his simple, homely, way of life, his kind natural manner, his unostentatious goodness, his friendly and unconventional visits to the homes of his subjects, his delight in agricultural pursuits, rural exercises and occupations, that won for him the title of "Farmer George," and bound him to the hearts of the people.

In a newspaper of the day we find an account of the daily home life of the King:—

"When the King rises, which is generally about half-past seven o'clock, he proceeds immediately to the Queen's saloon where his Majesty is met by one of the Princesses, generally either Augusta, Sophia, or Amelia; for each, in turn, attend their revered parents. Thence the Sovereign and his daughter, attended by the lady-in-waiting, proceed to the chapel, in the castle, where divine service is performed by the Dean or Sub-dean; the ceremony occupies about an hour. Thus the time passes until 9 o'clock,

when the King, instead of proceeding to his own apartments and breakfasting alone, now takes that meal with the Queen and the five Princesses. The table is always set out in the Queen's noble breakfasting room, which commands a most delightful and extensive prospect of the Little Park. The meal does not occupy more than half-an-hour. The King and Queen sit at the head of the table, and their daughters according to seniority. Etiquette in every other respect is strictly adhered to. After breakfast, the King generally rides on horse-back, attended by his equerries; three of the Princesses,

GEORGE III. ATTENDED BY THE PRINCE OF WALES, DUKE OF YORK, SIR WILLIAM FAWCIT, AND LIEUT. GEN. DUNDAS.

namely, Augusta, Sophia, and Amelia are usually of the party. Instead of only walking his horse, his Majesty now proceeds at a good round trot. When the weather is unfavourable the King retires to his favourite sitting room and sends for General Fitzroy or General Manners to play at chess with him. His Majesty, who knows the game well, is highly pleased when he beats the former, that gentleman being an excellent player. The King dines regularly at two o'clock; the Queen and Princesses at four. His Majesty visits, and takes a glass of wine with them, at five. After this period public business is frequently transacted by the King in his own study, wherein he is attended by his private secretary, Colonel Taylor. The evening is, as usual, passed at cards in the Queen's drawing room, where three tables are set out. To these parties many of the principal nobility, &c., residing in the neighbourhood, are invited. When the clock strikes ten the visitors retire. The supper is then set out, but that is merely a matter of

form, and of which none of the family partake. These illustrious persons retire at 11 o'clock to rest for the night, and sleep in undisturbed repose until they rise in the morning. The journal of one day is the history of the whole year."*

No monarch has ever lived a more prosaic home life; never was there a quieter or duller household regime than that of Windsor or Kew. The daily ride was only varied by the daily stroll when, as Thackeray says, the King "poked his red face into hundreds of cottages round about, and showed that shovel hat and Windsor uniform to farmers, to pig-boys, to old women making apple dumplings, to all sorts of people, gentle and simple, about whom countless stories are told."

GILRAY'S "FARMER GEORGE AND HIS WIFE."

The evening amusement of backgammon or cards was only varied by a visit to the theatre or a concert. There was no question of conscience at stake in going to the theatre, for the clergy and their bishops went without hesitation, and it was a form of amusement in which the King took great delight. It was a common saying of the people that it was "as good as a play" to see the King at a theatre, he enjoyed it so thoroughly; a remark which Thackeray emphasizes:—"He is said not to have cared for Shakespeare or tragedy much; farces and pantomimes were his joy; and especially when the clown swallowed a carrot or a string of sausages he would laugh so outrageously that the lovely princess at his side would have to say 'My gracious Majesty, *do* compose yourself.'"

The King was a great lover of music, especially church music, and was an able critic as well as an accomplished executant; the Queen, too, played the spinet sufficiently well to win the commendation of Haydn, and the musical evenings at the palace gave the King great pleasure. So also did it to discuss theology and the tendencies of Socinianism with a favourite bishop; or to spend a quiet hour in studying geography and drawing maps, or to attend a country dance and "foot it for three hours at a time to one tune."

These aspects of the character of George III. readily lent themselves to caricature, and not one of them was missed by James Gillray, the "Rubens of caricature," whose satire was pointed by private pique. His facile graver etched the whole life of the King and all the world became familiar with his eccentricities—the unroyal familiarity of manner, awkward shuffling gait, undignified carriage and fatuous countenance, the habit of entering into conversation with persons of low rank, the volubility with which he poured out his pointless questions, without waiting for any other answer than his own "Hy! hy! hy!"; his love of money, his homely savings, have all been trebly emphasized by the great caricaturist of his reign.

Happily for the King, who never saw the point of a subtle joke, and was as impervious to ridicule as he was to argument whenever he thought himself in the right, no man in his dominions laughed more regularly at each new caricature by Gillray than he, and a whole set inscribed "For the King," forwarded to him as they came out, are said to be still preserved at Windsor.

There was another and a totally different side to the character of the King. He laboured under the disadvantage of having been brought up in too strict seclusion and

* *Morning Post*, November 7th, 1806.

too much under the influence of his mother, the Dowager Princess of Wales, and her favourite adviser, the Earl of Bute. She was a woman full of bigotry and hatred, and of boundless ambition for her son, while the Earl of Bute was narrow-minded, cold and haughty, and together they caused his education to be about the worst he could have had, training him to arbitrary conduct and narrowing a mind somewhat narrow by nature. This became a great stumbling block to him when he began to play his part in politics; his own powers were not of a high order, yet he lacked the capacity of using greater minds than his own; he formed wrong judgments and stuck to them with wonderful persistency; he was obstinate in his dealings, sometimes to the lack of straightforwardness, and was ever goaded on by his mother in the well-known formula, "George, be King." He sought to govern by means of favourites and agents who were ready at all times to do his bidding, and to thwart his responsible Ministers behind their backs; he kept a black list of those who voted against his favourite Ministers; he sought to make the House of Commons a mere organ of his will; in short, he desired to be first Minister of the State as well as King. He clung to kingly authority, and regarded with feelings of hate and jealousy greater men than himself—and they were many. He idolized his own opinion, could never understand how there could possibly be any conscientious dissent from it, and was wont to argue thus:—

"I think so-and-so, and am conscientious in thinking so; *ergo*, any other opinion must be unconscientious."

He was a practical, busy man, well-acquainted with public business, much given to details, restless, inquisitive and determined to have a finger in every pie; punctual and tidy in his habits, he expected the same virtues in others; and sometimes he was given to regard too zealously the mint, the anise, and the cummin, and to forget the weightier matters of the law. Not a step was taken in foreign, colonial, or domestic affairs but he formed his opinion upon it and exercised his influence over it. The instructions to ambassadors, the orders to governors, the movement of forces, the appointment to all offices in Church and State—not only the giving away of judgeships, bishoprics, and regiments, but all the subordinate promotions, lay and clerical—he held in his own power, and sometimes used for his own purposes only.

Thackeray says, "He knew all about the family histories and genealogies of his gentry, and pretty histories he must have known. He knew the whole army list, and all the facings and the exact number of the buttons, and all the tags and laces, and the cut of all the cocked hats, pigtails, and gaiters in his army. He knew the *personnel* of the Universities; what doctors were inclined to Socinianism and who were sound Churchmen; he knew the etiquettes of his own and his grandfather's courts to a nicety, and the smallest particulars regarding the routine of ministers, secretaries, embassies, and audiences; the humblest page in the anteroom, or the meanest helper in the stables or kitchens. These parts of the Royal business he was capable of learning and he learned."

Many of his letters would have shocked Lindley Murray. There was little or no elegance of expression in them: they were blunt, positive, crude and not suggestive of a very refined or sagacious mind. One characteristic and finical habit was to date nearly all his letters by hours and minutes, thus:—

"Queen's House, Feb. 23rd, 1772.
20 min. p. 10, p.m."

His volubility at all times was as abundant in writing as in conversation, and he was easily excited to a high degree of nervous irritability.

George III. was twenty-two years of age when, on the death of his grandfather, he came to the throne, and one of his first acts was to fall in love with Lady Sarah Lennox, daughter of the second Duke of Richmond, and great granddaughter of Charles II. She was said to be the most lovely girl of the day, and the young King would gladly have made her his Queen. But he was completely under the thumb of his strong-minded mother, and she ordained otherwise. The Princess Charlotte Sophia, second daughter of the Duke of Mecklenburg-Strelitz, was therefore selected, and the King dutifully resolved to marry her. He always retained a soft place in his heart, however, for Lady Sarah Lennox, for whom he preserved a virtuous admiration. It was said by Walpole that the King winced when he first saw his homely little bride, and that he blushed at his wedding service when allusion was made to Abraham and *Sarah.**

Be that as it may, the marriage was a happy one, and he was a true and faithful husband to her, as she was a faithful and loving wife to him.

The character of Queen Charlotte commanded much more respect than affection. She was austere and rigid, the very pink of propriety, an exemplary wife and mother, and a good woman. Her tastes were very simple; she possessed a strong and sound judgment, and did not, as a rule, interfere in affairs of State. If her love of economy stood out too strongly in contrast to the King's liberality—which, by the way, was none too great—and if her strictness was a little too marked to please some of the Court circle, her conduct in these respects was more than compensated for by her splendid example in preserving the Court from vice at a time when, throughout Europe, there was a fearful laxity of morals, and by her love of the simplicity and sanctity of a British home.

George III. and Queen Charlotte became the parents of fifteen children, nine sons (of whom two, George, his successor, and William, reigned as Kings of England, and one, Ernest, as King of Hanover) and six daughters, one of whom, Mary, Duchess of Gloucester, lived until April 30th, 1857, aged 81; the last of the family.

The following particulars, in tabular form, will give the reader an account of the Royal family, most of whom will pass before us in later parts of this work.

The sons and daughters of George III. were as follows :—

His first Son—

GEORGE AUGUSTUS FREDERICK,

Prince of Wales, was born August 12th, 1762. Associated with Fox and the Whig party 1781. Married Mrs. Fitz-Herbert, 1785. Married his Cousin, Caroline of Brunswick, 1795. Separated from her 1796. Made Regent 1811. Ascended the Throne as George IV. 1820.

His second, and favourite, Son—

FREDERICK, was born 1763. Declared, at the age of six months, Prince-Bishop of Osnaburg. Created Duke of York 1784. Was for many years Commander-in-Chief of the Army. Died January, 1827.

His third Son—

WILLIAM, was born 1765. Was in 1780 created Duke of Clarence. He lived for many years with Mrs. Jordan, an actress, and had by her a numerous family, who took the name of Fitz-Clarence. Married Adelaide, daughter of George, Duke of Saxe-Meiningen, 1818. Became afterwards Lord High Admiral, 1827-8, and William IV. of Britain, 1830.

*Lady Sarah was married in 1764, to Sir J. C. Bunbury, son of the Rev. Sir W. Bunbury, Bart. The marriage was, however, an unhappy one, and was dissolved by Act of Parliament. Subsequently she was married to the Hon. Major-General George Napier, and became the mother of a set of remarkable men, whose lives and gallant deeds have left an indelible mark on English history, among them being Sir Charles James Napier, the hero of Scinde, and Sir William Napier, the historian of the Peninsular War.

His fourth Son—

EDWARD, was born 1767. Created Duke of Kent 1799. He married Victoria, daughter of Francis, Duke of Saxe-Coburg, 1818 (by whom he had only one child, Her Majesty QUEEN VICTORIA.)

His fifth Son—

ERNEST, was born 1771. Created Duke of Cumberland 1799. The Duke became King of Hanover on the decease of his brother, William IV. 1837. He died November 18th, 1851.

His sixth Son—

AUGUSTUS, was born 1773. Created Duke of Sussex 1801. Died 1843.

His seventh Son—

ADOLPHUS, was born 1774. Created Duke of Cambridge 1801. Died 1850. His son, George, Duke of Cambridge, and his elder daughter, the Grand Duchess of Mecklenburg-Strelitz, are still living ; his daughter, Mary, Duchess of Teck, died October, 1897.

His eighth Son—

OCTAVIUS, was born 1779. Died 1783.

His ninth Son—

ALFRED, was born 1780. Died 1782.

His Daughters—

(1) CHARLOTTE, Princess Royal, was born 1766. Married Frederick, Prince (afterwards King) of Wurtemberg, 1797. Died without issue 1828.

(2) AUGUSTA, was born 1768. Died, unmarried, 1840.

(3) ELIZABETH, was born 1770. Married Frederick, Landgrave of Hesse-Homburg, 1818. Died without issue, 1840.

(4) MARY, was born 1776. Married William Frederick, Duke of Gloucester, her cousin, 1816. Died without issue, 1857.

(5) SOPHIA, was born 1777. Died, unmarried, 1848.

(6) AMELIA, was born 1783. Died, unmarried, 1810.

PRINCE LEOPOLD OF SAXE-COBURG AND PRINCESS CHARLOTTE, DAUGHTER OF PRINCE REGENT, DANCING A MINUET.

From a Print of 1813.

CHAPTER II.

SOCIAL STATE OF ENGLAND IN 1801.

A GLANCE at some examples of character and conduct, of life and manners, of laws and customs, of labour and recreation, mainly as seen in London, will help us to picture to ourselves the condition of England generally as it was in the first year of the Nineteenth Century.

For ten years the country had been more or less engaged in war which had left its traces everywhere. Food was scarce; wheat, which in 1792 was only forty-seven shillings per quarter, rose in 1800 to one hundred and thirty-three shillings, and the quartern loaf was sold at one shilling and tenpence. There was no foreign grain in the market in those days, the only supply other than that which the country yielded, being

OLD LONDON BRIDGE IN 1801.

when the very reprehensible practice was put in force of stopping the grain-ships of neutral powers and making a forcible sale of their cargoes. So short ran provisions and so threatening was famine that in February a Bill was passed making it "unlawful for any baker, or any other person or persons residing within ten miles of the Royal Exchange after the 26th day of February, 1800, or residing in any part of Great Britain after the 4th day of March, 1800, to sell, or offer, or expose for sale, any bread until the same shall have been baked twenty-four hours at the least, under a penalty of £5 for every loaf of bread so sold, offered, or exposed for sale."

Later in the year food became scarcer and dearer, and the Acts against "Forestalling" and "Re-grating" were put into force.* Throughout London and the country there were food riots, and so great was the scarcity of corn that the King issued a proclamation "exhorting all persons who had the means of procuring other food than

* To *forestall* the market, was to buy up merchandise on its way to market with the intention of selling it again at a higher price, or to dissuade persons from bringing their goods there; or to persuade them to enhance the price when there; while *re-grating* was to buy corn, provisions, &c., and sell again in or near the same market. Both forestalling and re-grating were offences at law up till 1844, and were punishable.

corn, to use the strictest economy in the use of every kind of grain, abstaining from pastry, reducing the consumption of bread in their respective families at least one third, and upon no account to allow it to exceed one quartern loaf for each person in each week; and also all persons keeping horses, especially those for pleasure, to restrict their consumption of grain as far as circumstances would permit."

Other provisions were exceptionally dear; beef was sold at 1/6 per pound, mutton at 1/3 per pound, and fowls at 6/6 each.

The general food of the poor and the middle classes was much plainer then than it is now, notwithstanding that it was an age when men ate and drank in much larger quantities. Nor had they so much variety. The state of the roads rendered it impossible to supply London with fresh food throughout the year, and consequently

WESTMINSTER BRIDGE IN 1801, WITH WESTMINSTER HALL AND ABBEY TOWERS.

salt meat and salt fish formed the staple diet during the winter months; while for the same reason fresh vegetables were not obtainable, and therefore meat, bread and cheese, with beer—as the common drink at all meals—was the regular food. Of course, there was no frozen meat, or tinned provisions of any kind, nor any of the handy necessaries and luxuries which eke out the living of to-day.

In higher classes of society the ordinary food was much plainer and coarser than it is now. There was a prejudice against French cookery; game was scarce and dear; poultry was only seen at the tables of the rich; and the usual fare was beef and mutton, varied by mutton and beef. Fish was scarce and dear, "the war naturally preventing the fishermen from going far from the coast, and their numbers, moreover, were thinned by impressment. There were no railways to bring this very perishable commodity quickly to market, no ice to preserve it on its journey; the smack must go to port to unload her cargo, and, being entirely dependent upon her sails, was at the mercy of the wind. Inland, people never knew the taste of salt-water fish, unless some kind friend sent a cod

or turbot packed in straw in a basket, as a present, by the mail or stage-coach. Nor could the Londoner then get the abundant supply of our salmon rivers, which he now, in common with the whole of England, enjoys."

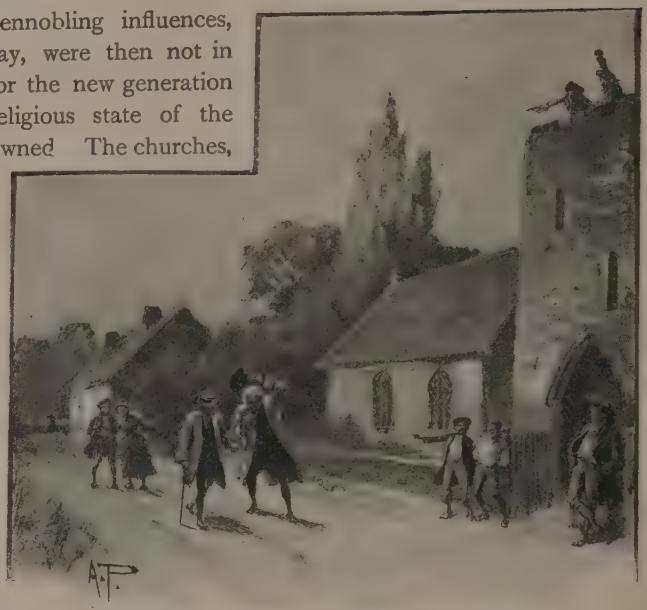
The enormous expenditure for war purposes made it necessary to impose taxation to an almost boundless extent, and this, in conjunction with scarcity of food, made the condition of the poor, upon whom taxation always falls most heavily, almost hopeless. Bread, sugar, tea, malt—all those things which have come to be regarded as necessaries of life—were taxed heavily, and, as the war was not yet over, taxation increased from year to year, until the jibe of Sydney Smith became true :—

"The schoolboy," he said, "whips his taxed top; the beardless youth manages his taxed horse with a taxed bridle on a taxed road; and the dying Englishman, pouring his medicine which has paid seven per cent., into a spoon which has paid fifteen per cent., flings himself back upon his chintz bed which has paid twenty-two per cent., and expires in the arms of an apothecary, who has paid a license of one hundred pounds for the privilege of putting him to death. His whole property is then immediately taxed from two to ten per cent. Large fees are demanded for burying him in the chancel; his virtues are handed down to posterity on taxed marble; and then he is gathered to his forefathers to be taxed no more."

So great was the poverty that in 1801 four millions sterling was expended in relief of the poor of England and Wales.

The condition of the working-classes about this time presents a very striking contrast to their condition now. They groaned under heavy burdens, and were stung by the reproach that they were but a mere part of the machinery of the country; and they were fettered by vexatious laws. To combine in their own defence was to sin against the Combination Laws and render themselves criminal; to emigrate when the labour market was overstocked was also to offend against the law and be liable to heavy punishment.

None of the thousand schemes now in operation for their benefit were in existence, and no efforts were being made in any direction to raise and improve them, either physically, morally, or religiously. The factory system was cruelly oppressive; mines and collieries were worked in great measure by women and children, under conditions that were a disgrace to civilisation; bakers, sailors, and chimney-sweeps were left unprotected by legislation. Friendly Societies, many of them rotten to the core, were the only legalised means of self-help; post-office savings banks, or their equivalents, had scarcely yet entered into the thought of man; sanitary science was practically unknown; education was not a right; ragged schools, reformatories and industrial schools, mechanics' institutes, and workmen's clubs had not begun to exist; limited liability, enabling the poorer classes to contribute their small capital to the increase of the productive power of the country, was not so much as thought of. The poor-laws were pauperising and degrading; the stamp duties were an effectual bar to the poor man enforcing any legal claims; there was no law of compensation for accidents. The tastes of the people—and of the aristocracy for the matter of that—were low and coarse, and what cheap literature there was only pandered to it. Crime was rampant, and a spirit of turbulence and lawlessness was beginning to manifest itself. The only resource of the people in self-defence, and perhaps the only argument they understood, was that of violence. The vast machinery of philanthropy, with which we have been familiar since the beginning of the second half of the century, was only in its infancy.



"FROM THE VERY TOWER OF THE CHURCH."

Many restraining and ennobling influences, common enough in our day, were then not in existence, and it is difficult for the new generation to realise what was the religious state of the country when the century dawned The churches, with few exceptions, of which we shall speak more particularly later on, were in a condition of absolute lethargy; there was no enthusiasm anywhere, and co-operation for great and good ends was only just beginning. Between the Church of England and the Nonconformist bodies a great gulf was fixed; the former was commonly associated with all that was high and dry, cold and orthodox; the latter with vulgarity and ignorance. On the one hand it was deemed a meritorious thing to hate and persecute a dissenter; on the other it was usual to vindicate nonconformity and to criticise the establishment with a vehemence happily quite out of date now.

In a religious sense a deep sleep had fallen upon clergy and laity, ministers and people, alike. The cathedrals were little better than show places in which perfunctory services were performed before scant congregations; Westminster Abbey and St. Paul's were never thronged with eager listeners to stirring appeals; none of the great religious edifices of the land were filled, except on the occasion of some funeral or great public function. The old parish churches were the dreariest and most desolate of places, cold and cheerless; teaching and preaching the gospel by laymen was undreamed of except among the followers of Wesley.

Until the year 1812, Nonconformists were obliged, for their own protection, to take certain prescribed oaths under the Toleration Act, as it was styled, to enable them to carry on their work with bodily safety. In many parishes there was bitter hostility between church and chapel, and it is impossible to take up a book dealing with those times, and written from a Nonconformist point of view, without coming across passages of which the following may be taken as a specimen :—

"Those Nonconformist ministers who began their work early in the century had to struggle against hostility and persecutions of which we know nothing. When they went out into country villages to preach, they were not unfrequently assaulted by brutal mobs who knew that the clergy and magistrates were looking on with scarcely concealed delight and that the methodist would appeal for protection in vain to the local preservers of the peace. From the very tower of the church, stones and rotten eggs were sometimes hurled on the itinerant evangelist as he passed beneath it to the village chapel. Among the clergy there were very many whose immoralities made the church an object of disgust and abhorrence to their parishioners; and the earnest and devout, instead of

being numbered by thousands as now, were bright and rare exceptions to a prevailing indolence and worldliness."*

In such a state of things, it follows almost as a matter of course, that crime of all kinds flourished, especially in the great cities. The means for its repression were ridiculously inadequate. In London the safety of life and property depended upon the efforts of parochial watchmen, familiarly termed "Charlies." The parochial watchman has been described as a species of animal after the model of the old hackney coachman, encumbered with the self-same drab great-coat, with countless capes, with the same "Belcher" handkerchief, or comforter, and speaking in the same husky voice, and just as sottish, stupid, and uncivil. At night—for it was not thought worth while to set a watch in the day-time—the authorities provided him with a watch-box in order that he might enjoy his snooze in comfort, and furnished him with a huge lantern in order that its rays might enable the thief to get out of his way in time. As if these aids to escape were not

ON HOUNSLOW HEATH.

sufficient for the midnight marauder, the watchman was provided with a staff with which he thundered on the pavement as he walked, a noise which he alternated with crying the hour and the state of the weather in a loud singing voice, which told of his whereabouts when he himself was far out of sight. In addition to the "Charlies" there was another class of persons, the "Informers," who, if more active, were calculated in a still greater degree to defeat justice, but in a totally opposite direction. They were men who earned their bread out of the blood of the criminal population. Rewards were offered by Government for the apprehension of felons, and these wretched men were more intent upon securing blood money than in suppressing crime. It is alleged that it was their deliberate practice to allow robberies to proceed, which they might have prevented, in order to obtain their reward; or, to use their own language, they were accustomed to "let the matter ripen" until the fee was secure and the punishment at hand.

*Dr. R. W. Dale—"Life of Rev. J. A. James."

It was not until 1805 that the horse-patrol was instituted to suppress the highway robberies that took place nightly in the neighbourhood of Hounslow Heath, Wimbledon Common, Finchley Common, Romford Road, and elsewhere, nor was it until 1829 that Sir Robert Peel instituted a new police force, nick-named, after him "Bobbies" and "Peelers."

Even when the horse-patrol was established, their duties had nothing to do with the old parish constables who had flourished from the time of the Saxons. "No means existed by which the watchmen of different parishes could be made to

CHARLIE ON HIS BEAT.

co-operate against their common foe—the thief. In the city they were under the direction of no less than thirty different authorities. There were the street-keepers, the patrol, the ward constable, etc., all acting under separate masters, and so complete was the division that the constable of one ward could not interfere to prevent a robbery going on on the opposite side of the street, if it was out of his bounds."

So long as the old "Charlie" existed, he was the type of feebleness and imbecility. He was the subject of illustrated caricature; it was the pet pastime of the young bloods of the day to thrash or otherwise maltreat him, and his propensity to doze was the subject of endless witticism. Here is a specimen:—"A friend of mine," said Lord

Erskine, "was suffering from a continual wakefulness and various methods were taken to send him to sleep, but in vain. At last his physicians resorted to an experiment which succeeded perfectly. They dressed him in a watchman's coat, put a lantern in his hand, and placed him in a sentry box, and he was asleep in ten minutes!"

With scarcity of food, heavy taxation, and great poverty, it is not surprising that under such a police, robbery increased to an alarming extent, insomuch that it was estimated by a competent authority that the annual value of the property stolen at that time was at least £1,500,000, while the fact was patent that the number of receivers of stolen goods had increased between 1780 and 1800 from three hundred to three thousand.

Crime, or rather the record of crime, always commands an interest, and criminals have had a fascination for readers, in fact as well as in fiction, for generations. The biographies of great criminals have been as popular as lives of great statesmen, and stories of eminent detectives have probably been read more widely and with keener relish than those of great reformers or great heroes.

We shall only glance here at one or two forms of crime peculiar to the time of which we write, and then pass on to notice the brutal severity of all forms of punishment.

In the *Morning Post* of February 3rd, 1800, a novelty in crime is recorded, and is headed "First New Mode of Robbery in 1800."

"A few days past, a man entered a little public-house near Kingston, called for a pint of ale and drank it, and whilst his host was away, put the pot in his pocket, and without even paying for the beer, decamped. The landlord returning, two other men who were in the room, asked him whether he knew the person who had just left the house. 'No,' he replied. 'Did he pay for the ale?' said they; 'No!' answered the other. 'Why, d—n him!' cried one of the guests, 'he put the pot in his pocket.' 'The devil he did,' exclaimed the host, 'I will soon be after him.' Saying this he ran to the door and the two men with him. 'There, there, he's going round the corner now,' said one, pointing. Upon which, the landlord immediately set off, and crossing a field, quickly came up to him. 'Halloa! my friend,' said he, 'you forgot to pay for your beer.' 'Yes,' replied the other, 'I know that.' 'Perhaps you know, too,' added the landlord, 'that you took away the pot? Come, come, I must have that back at any rate.' 'Well, well,' said the man, and put his hand into his pocket as if about to return the pot; but, instead of that, he produced a pistol and robbed the ale-house keeper of his watch and money. This might seem calamity enough for the poor man; but to fill up his cup of misfortune to the brim, he found, on returning to his home, that the two he had left behind had, during his absence, plundered his till, stolen his silver spoons and decamped."

One class of crime, long since extinct, is worth referring to here as significant of the times. From 1800 until 1832, the methods resorted to by anatomical teachers for the purpose of obtaining subjects for dissection, seem almost incredible to us. The Resurrectionsts, or Body-snatchers, were almost the only persons who could supply what was required, and they were men of the worst character in league with the watchmen who were set to guard the burial grounds, and did so, but in the interests of the men who robbed the graves of their dead.

The *modus operandi* was to rifle the newly made grave in the night and take away the corpse by cart, or even hackney coach, and after depositing it in some place of safety to pack it, and, in broad daylight, the Body-snatcher, disguised as a porter would deliver it at its destination.

It was no unusual thing at the beginning of a new session at the hospitals to find the lecturers treating with the Resurrectionists and even offering fifty pounds down and nine or ten guineas on delivery for each body, although sometimes in exceptionally healthy seasons as much as twenty pounds would be given for a single subject.

Many artifices were resorted to when popular indignation had been raised against the Body-snatchers. They entered into arrangements with the lower class of undertakers, to whom the bodies of poor persons were consigned for interment, and it is said that often a clergyman read the funeral service over a coffin filled with rubbish as a substitute for the stolen body.

So prevalent did the horrible practice become of stealing bodies and selling them to anatomical professors, that at length a Select Committee of the House of Commons was appointed to enquire into the matter, when Sir Astley Cooper, one of the leading surgeons of the day, gave evidence, and in reply to a question "Does the state of law actually

EXECUTION AT TYBURN.

prevent the teachers of anatomy from obtaining the body of any person, which, in consequence of some peculiarity of structure, they may be particularly desirous of procuring?", gave for answer, "The law does not prevent our obtaining the body of an individual if we think proper; for there is no person, let his situation in life be what it may, whom, if I were disposed to dissect, I could not obtain."

It was not long after this that the nefarious traffic was stopped.

The criminal laws were barbarous and brutal—savage almost beyond belief—and were administered in a relentless spirit. It has been said by Sir Samuel Romilly that there was no other country in the world where so many and so large a variety of actions were punished with loss of life. How many, it is difficult to say with certainty; some

THE PILLORY.

historians assert "that the law recognized two hundred and twenty-three capital offences, of which one hundred and fifty-six bore no remoter date than the reigns of the Georges." Others give a much lower estimate; but all concur in the view of Sir Samuel Romilly. The brutal severity of the punishments inflicted in the early part of this most enlightened of all centuries is a standing blot on the history of our country. "The deadly never-green," as the gallows was called in the slang language of the day, bore fruit all the year round. "If a man injured Westminster Abbey, he was hanged; if he cut down young trees, if he shot at rabbits, if he stole property valued at five shillings, if he stole anything at all from a bleachfield, if he wrote a threatening letter to extort money, if he returned prematurely from transportation—for any of these offences he was immediately hanged." *

At one Sessions at the Old Bailey, ending September 24th, 1801, we read in a newspaper of the day:—"Sentence of death was then passed upon Thomas Fitzroy, alias Peter Fitzwater, for breaking and entering the house of James Harris, in the day time, and stealing a cotton counterpane; William Cooper, for stealing a linen cloth, the property of George Singleton in his dwelling house; J. Davies, for a burglary; Richard Emms, for breaking into the dwelling house of Mary Humphrey, in the day time, and stealing a pair of stockings; Richard Foster, for a burglary; Magnus Kerner, for a burglary and stealing six silver spoons; Robert Pearce, for returning from transportation; Richard Alcorn, for stealing a horse; John Nowland and Richard Freke, for burglary and stealing four tea spoons, a gold snuff box, etc.; John Goldfrede, for stealing a blue coat; Joseph Huff, for stealing a lamb; and John Pass, for stealing two lambs."

THE WHIPPING POST.

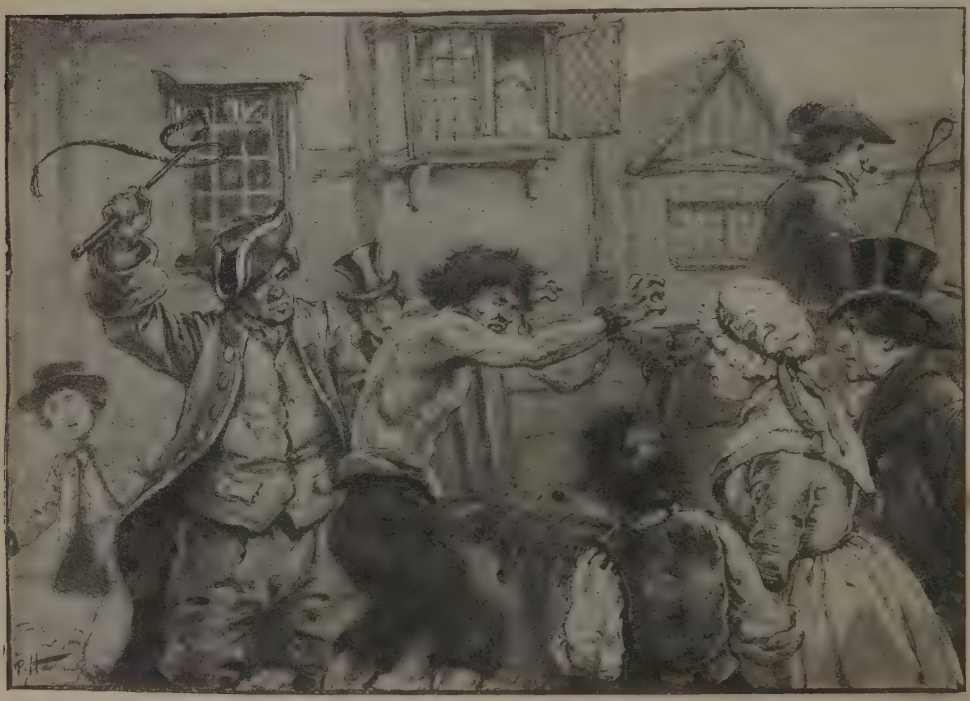
Although the criminal was liable to be hanged for these offences it does not follow that the sentence of death was carried out in every instance. For other offences, the penalty of transportation, imprisonment, whipping, the stocks and the pillory, was provided.

The pillory had its counterpart in almost every European country and figured largely in the story of persecution and oppression, not only in England, but in France and Germany. It usually consisted of a wooden frame erected on a stool or platform, with holes and folding boards for the admission of the head and

* *The Nineteenth Century*, by Robert Mackenzie.

hands. It was a barbarous punishment and it is marvellous, to our present ideas of justice, how it could have been tolerated so long as it was. It was a punishment for many offences widely different in their enormity; fore-stallers, perjurers, forgers, libellers, and writers of seditious articles. The father of Archbishop Leighton had stood in the pillory for printing "Zion's plea against Prelacy;" Titus Oates, for his betrayal of innocent lives; Daniel Defoe, for writing a pamphlet "The Shortest Way with the Dissenters."

In 1814 the noble Lord Cochrane (afterwards Earl of Dundonald) was unjustly accused as a party to an attempted fraud on the Stock Exchange, and was sentenced to the pillory. Against this sentence Sir Francis Burdett, his Parliamentary colleague, protested so strenuously, telling the Government that if it were carried out he would



WHIPPING AT THE CART-TAIL.

stand in the pillory by his side, that the authorities were cowed, and the sentence was confined to degradation, fine and imprisonment.

The pillory was a small matter to the hardened criminal; it was an intense punishment to any man of sensitiveness and refinement, especially, if, as not unfrequently happened, the on-looking crowd was evilly disposed. A newspaper account of the infliction of punishment on the pillory is as follows:—

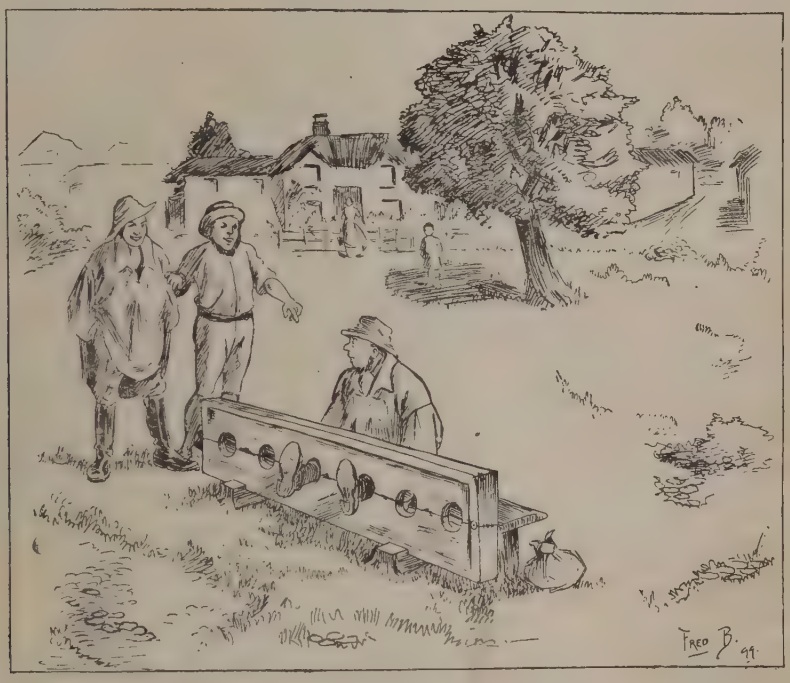
"The enormity of Thomas Scott's offence, in endeavouring to accuse Captain Kennah, a respectable officer, together with his servant, of robbery, having attracted much public attention, his conviction, that followed the attempt, could not but be gratifying to all lovers of justice. Yesterday the culprit underwent a part of his punishment; he was placed in the pillory at Charing Cross for one hour. On his first appearance he was greeted by a large mob, with a discharge of small shot; such as rotten eggs, filth, and dirt from the streets, which was followed up by dead cats, rats,

etc., which had been collected in the vicinity of the Metropolis by the boys in the morning. When he was taken away to Cold Bath Fields, to which place he is sentenced for twelve months, the mob broke the windows of the coach, and would have proceeded to violence had the police officers not been at hand."*

The pillory was not abolished until 1837.

The punishment of public whipping was as degrading as possible. Here is a scrap relating to it from the *Morning Post*, of Nov. 4th, 1800.

"This day being hay-market day at Whitechapel, John Butler, pursuant to his sentence at the last General Quarter Sessions held at Clerkenwell, is to be publicly whipped from Whitechapel Bars to the further end of Mile End Town, the distance of



THE PARISH STOCKS.

two miles, for having received several trusses of hay, knowing them to have been stolen, and for which he gave an inferior price."

For the punishment of petty offenders such as vagrants, trespassers, and the like, the stocks were employed. The apparatus consisted of a frame of timber with holes, in which the ankles, and sometimes both the ankles and wrists of the offenders, were confined. It was a humiliating punishment, as Lord Camden, the famous Lord Chief Justice, found. When he was a barrister he had a strong inclination to know what punishment in the stocks was really like, and requested a friend to fasten him in and leave him there for a while. Unfortunately, his friend was absent-minded and entirely forgot to release him ; so there he was left for the best part of the day, confined and cramped, not the least part of his punishment being that when he asked a chance traveller to release him, the man shook his head and passed on, remarking, "You wasn't put in there for nothing, my fine friend."

* *Morning Herald*, Jan. 28, 1804.

For the crime of suicide, the *felo de se* had his goods confiscated to the Crown, and his body interred in an ignominious manner, unless the coroner's jury gave a verdict of unsound mind. In the former case a stake was driven through the body, which was buried at the junction of four cross roads. The use of the stake had reference to an old superstition that unless the body of a suicide were fastened to the ground his perturbed spirit would walk the earth, and haunt the place of his crime.

So late as April 27th, 1810, we find in the *Morning Post* such an announcement as this :—

"The officers appointed to execute the ceremony of driving a stake through the dead body of James Cowling, a deserter from the London Militia, who deprived himself of existence by cutting his throat at a public house in Gilbert Street, Clare Market, in consequence of which the coroner's jury found a verdict of self-murder, very properly delayed the business until twelve o'clock on Wednesday night, when the deceased was buried in the cross roads at the end of Blackmoor Street, Clare Market."

Hood's reference to this old relic of barbarism in "Faithless Nellie Gray" will be remembered. Ben Battle, "a soldier bold," when jilted by Nell, committed suicide; and

"A dozen men sat on his corpse
To find out why he died;
And they buried Ben in four cross roads,
With a *stake* in his inside!"

A curious way of evading punishment was by Benefit of Clergy, a privilege by which the clergy accused of capital offences were exempted from the jurisdiction of the lay tribunals and left to be dealt with by their bishops. In course of time the privilege was widened to include, not the clergy only, but everyone who could read, and thereby entitle himself to the name of "Clerk." A layman could only receive the Benefit of Clergy once, however; but he was not allowed to go without being branded on the thumb, a punishment which might be commuted for whipping, imprisonment, or transportation. The privilege of Benefit of Clergy was not abolished until 1827.

In the Army and Navy the discipline was cruelly severe, and the principal instrument of torture used on men condemned by their officers, was the lash. The punishment was administered with horrible barbarity; sometimes, for what would now be regarded as almost trivial offences, five hundred lashes would be given. The victim was bound, and relays of torturers were at hand to continue the work when their predecessors grew tired; while a medical man was in attendance to see that the victim did not die under the brutal treatment. If the poor wretch showed signs of collapse he was unbound and conveyed to the Infirmary to wait until such time as his wounds were sufficiently healed to bear the remainder of his sentence.

When, in 1811, the editor of a country newspaper drew attention to a monstrous case in which a soldier was sentenced by court-martial to one thousand lashes, seven hundred and fifty of which were actually inflicted, and after remarking that flogging was not practised in the French army, he added "Buonaparte's soldiers could not form any opinion of that most heartrending of all exhibitions on this side hell—an English military flogging," he was sentenced to eighteen months' imprisonment for his temerity.

Perhaps the most significant commentary on all this excessive system of punishment is to be found in the fact that in the year 1800, there were—notwithstanding the comparative sparseness of population—eighteen prisons in London alone, whereas in 1850, when population had enormously increased that number had been reduced one third.

In 1773, John Howard, the celebrated philanthropist, paid his visits of inspection to the chief English prisons, and what he saw then might have been, with few exceptions, seen at the dawn of the century. He found that nearly every prison he visited was not only insanitary and ill-ventilated, but filthy, poisonous, and in almost every instance overcrowded. Disease was prevalent in excessive forms, and as no measures were taken to prevent its spread, the prison became the death-trap of luckless persons who, in nine cases out of ten, ought not to have been there at all; many of the prisons were totally unfit for human habitation, and, so evilly were they managed, that free intercourse was allowed between the prisoners; in itself sufficient to reduce all to the level of the most currupt and criminal.

THE FLEET PRISON.

The result of Howard's investigation was that a Parliamentary Committee was appointed to enquire into the whole prison system. Their recommendations were embodied in an Act of Parliament (George III., xix. cap. 74, 1779), but when the century opened the new methods had only come into force in a tentative form. As we shall return to this subject, it will suffice if we just glance for a moment on some of the most glaring features of bad management and cruelty in the then existing prison system.

In many prisons the jailor received no salary; but made his livelihood from the fees he could extort from the prisoners and their friends; in some cases he paid so much a year for the privilege of holding the office. Not only had a prisoner to pay for his food and for the straw on which he slept but, if he failed to pay his dues, he would be detained until he did so; even though his term of imprisonment had expired.

In Cold Bath Fields prison, where the solitary system introduced by Howard was being tried, Captain Chesterton, who wrote a book called "Revelations of Prison Life," says: "Men, women, and children were indiscriminately herded together in this chief county prison, without employment or wholesome control; while smoking, gaming, singing, and every species of brutalizing conversation tended to the unlimited advancement of crime and pollution."

At the Fleet prison there was a grate or iron-barred window facing Farringdon Street, and above it was inscribed "Pray remember the poor prisoners having no allowance," while a small box was placed on the window sill to receive the charity of the

passers by, and a man ran to and fro in the neighbouring streets shaking a box and begging coins "for the poor prisoners in the Fleet."

At Newgate, in 1808, the women usually numbered from a hundred to one hundred and thirty, and each had only eighteen inches breadth of sleeping room, and all were "packed like slaves in the hold of a slave ship." When Elizabeth Fry visited the prison some years later, she found them "swearing, gambling, fighting, singing, dancing, drinking, and dressing up in men's clothes."

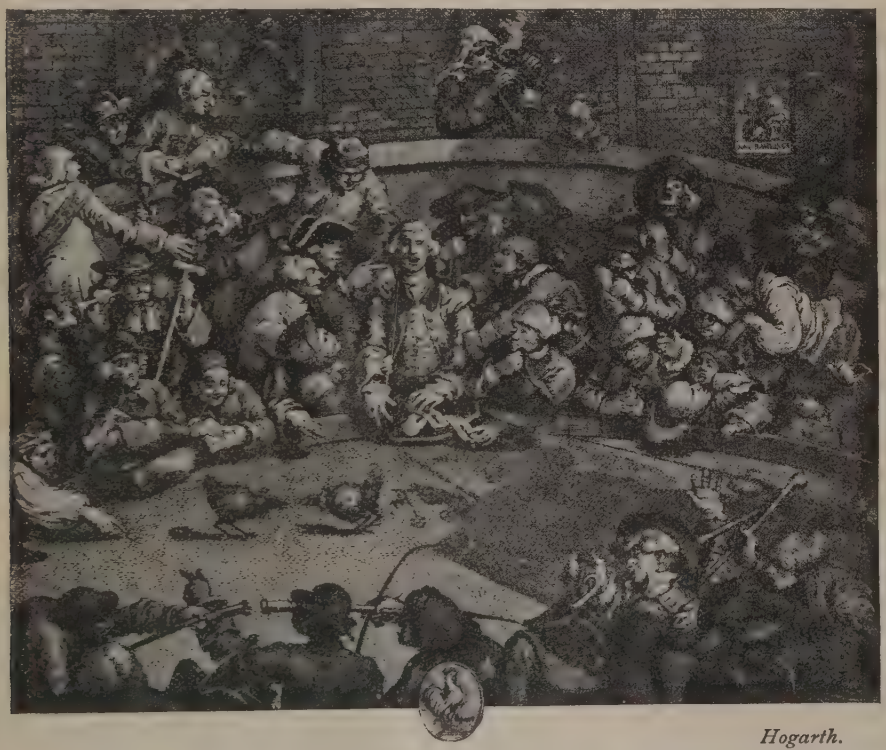
Of all the prisons of that day it may be stated that they were hot-beds of immorality, where young children herded with hoary criminals; where no sanitary laws were recognized; where fevers had their home, where vermin swarmed and loathsome diseases were contracted; where robbery, tyranny and cruelty were not only permitted, but were enforced upon the persons in charge of the jails.

BULL BAITING.

As the amusements of a people indicate very fairly the level of their civilization and attainment, let us now look at the way in which our forefathers sought their recreation at the opening of the century.

Bull-baiting, a cruel and degrading sport, although not so much patronised by the leaders of fashion as it had been in previous years, was still practised openly. The "sport" is described by an intelligent foreigner who witnessed it in its palmy days, in these graphic terms: "They tie a rope to the root of the horns of the bull, and fasten the other end of the cord to an iron ring fixed to a stake driven into the ground; so that this cord being about fifteen feet long, the bull is confined to a space of about thirty feet diameter. Several butchers, or *other gentlemen*, that are desirous to exercise their dogs stand round about, each holding his own by the ears; and when the sport begins, they let loose one of the dogs. The dog runs at the bull; the bull, immovable, looks down upon the dog with an eye of scorn, and only turns a horn to him, to hinder him from

coming nearer. The dog is not daunted at this; he runs round him and tries to get beneath his belly. The bull then puts himself into a position of defence; he beats the ground with his feet, which he joins together as closely as possible, and his chief aim is not to gore the dog with the point of his horn (which, when too sharp, is put into a kind of wooden sheath), but to slide one of them under the dog's belly, who creeps close to the ground to hinder it, and to throw him so high in the air that he may break his neck in the fall. To avoid this danger, the dog's friends are ready beneath him, some with their backs, to give him a soft reception, and others with long poles, which they offer him slant-ways to the intent that, sliding down them, it may break the force of his fall. Notwithstanding all this care, a toss generally makes him sing to a very scurvy tune, and draws his phiz into a pitiful grimace. But unless he is totally stunned with the fall, he is



Hogarth.

THE COCKPIT.

sure to crawl again towards the bull, come on't what will. Sometimes a second frisk into the air disables him for ever; but sometimes, too, he fastens upon his enemy, and when once he has seized him with his eye-teeth, he sticks to him like a leech, and would sooner die than lose his hold. Then the bull bellows and bounds and kicks, all to shake off the dog. In the end, either the dog tears out the piece he has laid hold on and falls, or else remains fixed to him with an obstinacy that would never end did they not pull him off. To call him away would be in vain; to give him a hundred blows would be as much so; you might cut him to pieces joint by joint before he would let him loose. What is to be done then? While some hold the bull, others thrust staves into the dog's mouth and open it by main force."

In May, 1802, a Bill was introduced into the House of Commons to suppress the brutal sport. It was supported by William Wilberforce and Sheridan,

and was opposed by Mr. Windham, who regarded the measure "as the first result of a conspiracy of the Jacobins and Methodists to render the people grave and serious," and by Colonel Grosvenor, who asked "If the higher orders had their Billington why not the lower orders their Bull?"

Strange to say, this extraordinary reasoning prevailed against the sarcasm of Courtenay, the earnestness of Wilberforce, and the eloquence of Sheridan, and the House refused, by a majority of thirteen, to abolish what the last named orator called "the most mischievous of all amusements."

It was not until the year 1835 that baiting was finally put down by an Act of Parliament (5 and 6 Will. IV., cap. 59, The Cruelty to Animals Act), forbidding the keeping of any house, pit, or other place for baiting or fighting any bull, bear, dog, or other animal; and after an existence of at least seven centuries this ceased to rank among the amusements of the English people.

Prize-fighting was popular, although it had lost the prestige of royal patronage. In his younger days the Prince of Wales gave it considerable encouragement. He was present at a fight on Brighton racecourse on the 6th of August, 1788, for the last time. It was between Tom Tyne "the Tailor," and Earl. "Tyne hit his opponent a sharp, left-handed blow on the side of the head, which drove him against the rail of the stage. He fell insensible and expired very shortly afterwards. The Prince of Wales openly expressed his determination to never again witness a prize-fight, and this he kept; also to settle an annuity on Earl's widow and children."

Cock-fighting was common. Advertisements like the following appeared in the public press:—

"Cocking, to be fought on January 7th, 1805, and continue all the week at the Cock Pit Royal, south side of St. James' Park, the Gentlemen of Suffolk and the Gentlemen of Hampshire's MAIN OF COCKS for Five Guineas the Battle, and One Hundred Guineas the odd. To begin fighting each day precisely at half-past five o'clock."

Cock-fighting was prohibited by Act of Parliament in August, 1849 (12 and 13 Vic. cap. 92).

ST. BARTHOLOMEW'S FAIR. *After Rowlandson.*

The great London Fair, held at Smithfield on St. Bartholomew's day, which had passed through many vicissitudes during seven centuries, was on the wane. Royalty no longer visited it, and for some years it had degenerated into a somewhat disreputable affair. In the early years of the century, however, it was still tolerated—although attempt after attempt had been made by the authorities to stem the tide of its irregularities—and for many years afterwards, Richardson's Show, Wombwell's Menagerie, and the usual streets of puppet shows, exhibitions of mermaids, sea serpents, spotted boys, and freaks and monstrosities of various kinds, continued to attract enormous crowds. It at length worked out its own destruction, the civic authorities and all decent citizens were opposed to it, and in 1855 it was suppressed.

Londoners found much amusement at Whitsuntide in a visit to Greenwich Fair, which was an expedition of far greater importance then than in later years, the journey having to be made by road. Enormous crowds congregated to gaze at the shows and

THE SEDAN CHAIR.

see the spangled dancers on the platforms of the players' booths, to play games in Greenwich Park, and to finish up the night in the dancing saloons, some of which were boarded structures two or three hundred feet long. Most of these saloons were of a loose and dissipated character.

Throughout the country, fairs were held; some, such as the Statute Fairs for the hiring of servants; others, as commercial markets; but at all shows, and merry-making made an attractive feature. With the introduction of steam, most of these fairs were rendered unnecessary and died a natural death.

Tea Gardens, once highly popular, had fallen, or were falling, into disrepute so far as "society" was concerned. Bagnigge Wells, Merlin's Cave, the London Spa, Marylebone Gardens, Cromwell's Gardens, Jenny's Whim, were all tea gardens with recesses, and avenues, and alcoves for love-making and tea-drinking, where an orchestra discoursed sweet music or an organ served as a substitute. An intelligent foreigner who published an account of his impressions of England about this time remarked, "The English take a great delight in the public gardens, near the Metropolis, where they assemble and drink tea together in the open air. The number of these in the capital is amazing, and the order, regularity, neatness, and even elegance of them are truly

admirable. They are, however, very rarely frequented by people of fashion; but the middle and lower ranks go there often and seem much delighted with the music of an organ, which is usually played in an adjoining building."

To-day, scarcely one of these gardens exists.

Vauxhall was still a place of fashionable resort, a very pandemonium of "society" immorality—much patronised by the Prince of Wales and his "set." Ranelagh, at Chelsea, had had its day, but had not ceased to be; the high fashion, so glowingly described by Walpole, found attractions elsewhere, and in 1804 the building, with its famous rotunda, where "the prince, princess, duke, much nobility, and much mob besides" had so often promenaded, was pulled down.

VAUXHALL.

The manners of the times were essentially coarse, and morality was at a very low ebb. Drunkenness was almost universal; a dinner-party was regarded as a failure if the guests did not drink deeply, and it was considered no disgrace—on the contrary, it was regarded as the proper thing—for those who could quaff no more, to seek that repose on the floor which the seat at table failed to afford.

Profane swearing was the constant practice of 'gentlemen' and it continued in fashion for many years. "They swore at each other because an oath added emphasis to their assertions. They swore at inferiors because their commands would not otherwise receive prompt obedience. The chaplain cursed the sailors because it made them listen more attentively to his admonitions. Ladies swore, orally and in their letters. Lord Braxfield, a famous Scotch judge, offered to a lady at whom he swore, because she played badly at whist, the sufficient apology that he had mistaken her for his wife. Erskine, the model of a forensic orator, swore at the bar. Lord Thurlow swore upon the

bench. The King (Geo. IV.) swore incessantly. When His Majesty desired to express approval of the weather, of a handsome horse, of a dinner which he had enjoyed, this 'first gentleman in Europe' supported his royal asseverations by a profane oath. Society clothed itself with cursing as with a garment.*"

That gambling was very prevalent in all classes, and by both sexes, is not to be wondered at, seeing that the Government systematically demoralised the people by means of lotteries, which yielded to the state a yearly revenue of about £350,000 besides the licenses of the brokers, of £50 each. Those of our readers who remember the excitement there was in 1867 with regard to the great lottery organised in connection with the Paris Exhibition of that year, will be able to understand how intense was the excitement in this country when any State Lottery was proclaimed. In London and throughout the provinces, offices were opened for the sale of tickets; hoardings were placarded with advertisements, newspapers had columns of information, and literary fortune-tellers issued pamphlets and scattered them broadcast.

The principle on which the State conducted these lotteries was simple. A certain sum was set forth, to be repaid by a larger; thus, the State gave on an average, £10 in prizes for every share taken.† A great many blanks, or of prizes much under £10, left a surplus for the creation of a few extraordinarily handsome prizes as baits for the unsuspecting. The office-keepers combined and contracted for the lottery, each taking a certain number of shares at, of course, more than £10 per share and the excess constituted the Government profit. These shares, which it was lawful to divide into halves, quarters, eighths, sixteenths, were sold for whatever the contractors could get, and many of them made large fortunes.

The mischief created by a system so glaringly immoral it is impossible to calculate. Everyone was "making haste to be rich;" everyone dabbled in shares however limited his resources were; everyone was buoyed up by false hopes and kept in a state of feverish excitement fatal to steady industry. Theories of "chances" and of "lucky numbers" were discussed with a fervour almost incredible and some of the wildest guesses at truth were made. A number corresponding with the date of the year, or of the drawer's birth, was considered lucky; or a combination of alternate odd and even numbers, or 666 the "number of the beast;" or the numbers of successful drawings in previous lotteries. A story is told of a lady who succeeded in having her success prayed for in church on the Sunday previous to the drawing, by sending in a requisition to the clergyman in this form:—"The prayers of the congregation are desired for the success of a person engaged in a new undertaking."

A STATE LOTTERY.

*Mackenzie's "Nineteenth Century."

†The amount of prizes in State Lotteries 1801-1810 was as follows:—

1801—£500,000	1803—£710,000	1805—£750,000	1807—£700,000	1809—£600,000
1802—£900,000	1804—£800,000	1806—£900,000	1808—£600,000	1810—£600,000

From the official "History of the National Debt."

The drawings generally took place at the Guildhall, and for many years the City Corporation made a good income from the letting of seats. When the drawing day arrived, the excitement reached its highest. Papers were put into a hollow wheel inscribed with as many different numbers as there were shares or tickets. One of these was drawn out by a Blue Coat boy and the number shouted out; another Blue Coat boy then drew out of another wheel a paper denoting either "blank" or a "prize" for a certain sum of money, and the purchaser of that particular number was awarded a blank or a prize accordingly. Whether the man who drew a blank or a prize was the more fortunate it is difficult to say; the newspapers of the day abound with instances of the ridiculous way in which, in many cases, the money was spent, and of

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By J. S. Crombton.

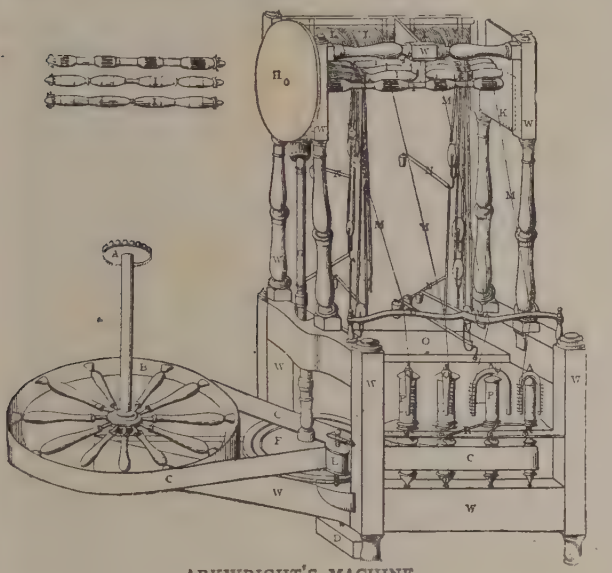
A STATUTE FAIR. *From a Water-colour Painting.*

folly and crime on the part of those whose disappointment on drawing a blank, led them to the verge of insanity.

It is recorded that an Innkeeper at Abingdon drew a prize of £20,000, and this is how he began to spend it. "The broker who went from London to carry him the news, he complimented with one hundred pounds. All the bells in the town were set a ringing. He called in his neighbours, and promised to assist this with a capital sum and that with another; gave away plenty of liquor, and vowed to lend a poor cobbler money to buy leather to stock his stall so full that he should not be able to get into it to work; and lastly he promised to buy a new coach for the coachman who brought him down the ticket, and to give a set of as good horses as could be bought for money."

The last State lottery was drawn in England on October 18th, 1826; the ceremony taking place in Cooper's Hall, Basinghall Street.

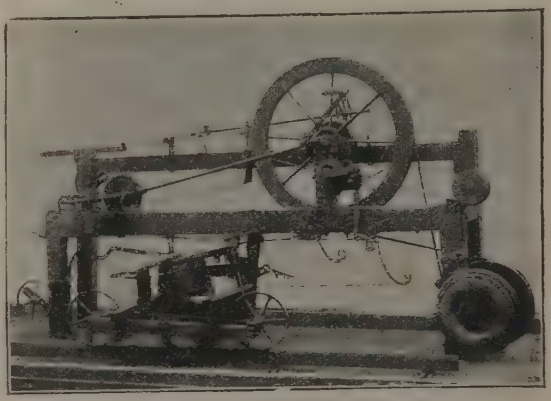
When the century opened education was at a deplorably low ebb; there were vast areas—miles upon miles of country—round every important centre, where no provision whatever was made for the education of poor children. Not half of the adult population in the manufacturing districts could either read or write. The fact was that there had sprung up a new order of things in relation to hand labour, and children, instead of being placed at school, were sent to the factory districts where they were worked with incredible cruelty and for inordinately long hours. How this was brought about by the introduction of machinery may be briefly told here. During the eighteenth century England received from India muslins and calicos to the annual value of £1,250,000, despite legislative enactments intended to foster the home manufacture of cotton fabrics. Even so late as 1806 our importations from India of such goods as are now the staple of the industry of Lancashire, amounted to two millions of pounds sterling. Within a comparatively few years after that date, England became an exporter of what she had previously imported so largely, and was able not only to furnish cotton goods of every variety and quality for the supply of all her own wants, but also to carry the produce of her looms ten thousand miles across the seas, and "place them at the doors of the Indian consumer, and undersell the goods made by his own hands from cotton grown in his own garden." It was to the inventions and improvements in machinery that this wonderful change was due. Up to the year 1738, the English hand-loom weaver was in no better case than the 'rude, unlettered Indian, but in 1738 John Kaye, of Bury, substituted the fly-shuttle, for the hand-shuttle, by which the production of the hand-loom was trebled. Other improvements followed; and in 1767, Mr. James Hargreaves, a hand-loom weaver of Blackburn, patented his "spinning jenny." So great was the saving of labour effected by this machine that the spinners were up in arms; they broke into his house and destroyed the machine. When, however, its advantages became apparent, fresh machines were brought into use, but these in like manner were destroyed and Hargreaves quitted Lancashire in disgust and settled in Nottingham where he erected a mill.



ARKWRIGHT'S MACHINE.

Following close upon the inventions of Hargreaves came those of Richard Arkwright and Samuel Crompton, by whose genius the production of yarn increased three-hundred fold; and these again were succeeded by the inventions of Dr. Cartwright, a clergyman; and of Mr. Robert Millar, a calico printer, of Glasgow. So that towards the close of the last century not only was the condition of the cotton manufacturing population completely changed, but these great inventions fashioned the destinies of

half the world. Instead of working in their own homes, the operatives were obliged to work in mills ; and instead of being comparatively their own masters, working when they would, they were under masters who made them work for what wages they pleased to give, and for what hours they chose to dictate.



CROMPTON'S SPINNING MULE.

This seemed to be a death-blow to the prospects of the working man, but remonstrance was in vain, and the alternatives staring him in the face were these :—Water could now be employed to do the harder part of the work, formerly done by men, who, if they were refractory could be sent adrift without loss to the manufacturer ; and as the machinery invented was such that children could manage it with almost as much success as adults, their labour could be transferred to children.

From this cause a demand for child-labour was created, and the supply was forthcoming. With the utmost cruelty young children were drafted from the workhouses of London, Edinburgh, and other great cities, and placed in the mills as "apprentices," where, at the discretion of sordid-overseers, they were worked unmercifully. A horrible traffic sprung up which spread in all directions ; child-jobbers scoured the country for the purpose of purchasing children to sell them again into the bondage of factory slaves on the one hand, and to owners of brick fields, coal pits, and employers of "agricultural gangs" on the other

Education under these circumstances was impossible, and tens of thousands of children were growing up with a painful knowledge of what was evil, unjust and immoral, and without any of the higher knowledge which makes life worth living.

At this period the cleansing wind that was to sweep away the clouds that hung over the intellectual and spiritual life of England, was only just beginning to rustle among the leaves, and sigh among the branches. Here and there men's hearts were stirred to do something to check the glaring evils that were patent on every hand, but at present little had been accomplished. The Religious Tract Society was only formed in the last year of the eighteenth century, and had hardly commenced its work of trying to check the spread of the pernicious literature of the day. The British and Foreign Bible Society, that was to unite Churchmen and Dissenters in Christian work, was not yet instituted. The many provident and charitable societies that have done so much to purify and sweeten the life of the people had not yet commenced their operations ; the institutions which marked the dawn of popular education in Britain had not yet begun their excellent work ; and the first Sunday School, planted in 1785, did not blossom into the Sunday School Union until 1803. It was not until 1808 that the British and Foreign School Society, mainly a Nonconformist Institution was founded, nor until 1811 that the Established Church founded the National School Society. In that same year the first elementary school for adults was opened at Bala, and in 1815 the first infant school was established at Lanark.

It is difficult to realise the enormous changes that have taken place within the century in the means of travelling. In its early days there were the mail coaches for the well-to-do, the stage coaches for the middle classes, and the stage waggons for the poor. No railroad was in existence anywhere, and steam, although understood, was not yet utilised for the steamboat or the locomotive. Many of the main roads were fairly good, but few of them were old; mile by mile they had struggled into existence as the system of coach travelling developed. Before that time, communication with other parts of the country could only be made on horseback at the rate of thirty or forty miles a day. At any time during the first thirty years of the century, "the yellow postchaise, without any driving seat, but with a postilion dressed like a jockey riding one of the pair of horses, was among the commonest sights on our main roads; and, together with the hundreds of four-horse mail and stage coaches, the guards carrying

THE MARGATE HOY.

Embarking at Free Quay, London, for Margate.

horns or bugles which were played while passing through every town or village, gave a stir and liveliness and picturesqueness to rural life, which is now almost forgotten."

Travelling was, nevertheless, a serious matter. A journey from Edinburgh to London by stage wagon occupied eighteen days, a part of the road being only passable by pack-horses; when Edmund Burke in 1774, travelled from London to Bristol in twenty-five hours the people said "the age of miracles was not yet over."

Other discomforts connected with travel, whether by coach or carriage, were, that fatigue was much greater than now, owing to the awkward construction of vehicles, and the traveller had to go armed for fear of highwaymen.

It was not until 1804 that one Obadiah Elliot, a coach-maker of Lambeth, patented a plan for hanging vehicles upon elliptic springs—the first step to a grand

revolution in the manufacture of carriages which was to affect every variety of vehicle, great or small.

At that time the briska, or britchka, had not been introduced from Austria; gigs, so largely used by commercial travellers, to whom, before railways came into fashion, they were let out at an annual rental, were almost unknown; pony phaetons, and cab phaetons, now known as "Victorias," had not come into existence. Broughams were unheard of—the first one was built for Lord Brougham in 1839. Mr. Hansom, the architect of the Birmingham Town Hall, had not yet invented his "Hansom Cab," nor had Mr. Shillibeer started his first omnibus.

In London there was, in 1800, a famous Whip Club, afterwards changed (1809) to the Four-in-Hand Club, and later on, the Barouche Club, the Defiance Club, the Tandem Club, and many others. The old sedan-chair was not yet obsolete, but it was mainly used in taking ladies to evening parties and other entertainments at a charge of one shilling a mile or one and sixpence an hour.

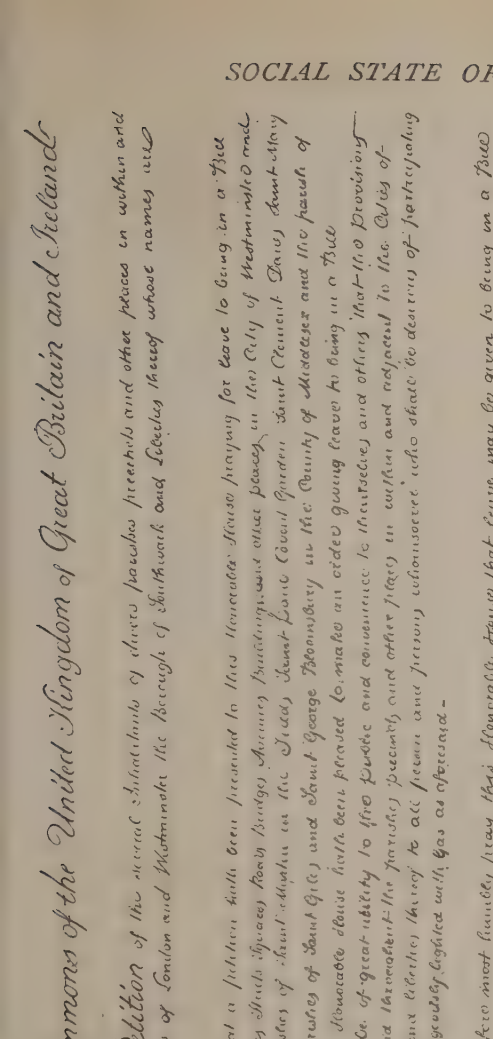
Owing to the dearness of conveyance by road, the rivers and canals were used much more in proportion than they are now. On the Thames, boatmen plied for hire on the "Stairs," as the steps leading down to the river were called, and watermen wore the badge of the company licensing them. There were only three bridges over the river at that time, London Bridge (doomed to come down), Blackfriars Bridge, and Westminster Bridge. The fare to cross the river was 1d. above the bridge and 2d. below. Long journeys were cheaper in proportion than short ones, and the fare to Windsor by boat was only two shillings. A voyage to Margate, the principal sea-side resort of the well-to-do, was regarded as a feat of maritime daring by Paterfamilias, who, it is said, made his will and settled all his worldly affairs before embarking in the old Margate "Hoy," which lumbered down the river at the rate of six or seven miles an hour, and might reach its desired haven in twenty-four hours or forty-eight, according to wind and tide. Charles Lamb made the voyage when he was fifteen years old, and describes his emotion when he "came in sight of the Reculvers, which one of our own company (having been the voyage before) immediately recognising, and pointing out to us, was considered by us as no ordinary seaman!"

OLD STREET WITH OIL LAMPS.

Even in those days, shipping extended from London Bridge to Greenwich, and in the "pool," traffic was congested, for docks were few and poor. The first stone of the West India Docks was laid on the 12th July, 1800, the first stone of the London Docks on June 26th, 1802, and that of the East India Docks in 1806.

There was a steamboat on the Thames so early as July, 1801. Says the Annual Register of that date:—

"An experiment took place on the River Thames for the purpose of working a barge, or any other heavy craft, against tide, by means of a steam engine of a very simple construction. The moment the engine was set to work the barge was brought about,



To the Honorable the Commons of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland
In Parliament assembled.

The humble Petition of the several Inhabitants of divers parishes precincts and other places in within and adjacent to the City of London and Westminster the Borough of Southwark and Liberty thereof whose names are hereunto subscribed.

Sheweth

That your Petitioners have been informed that a petition hath been presented to this Honorable House praying for leave to bring in a Bill for more effectually lighting with Gas the Public Offices Streets Roads Bridges Avenues Passages and other places in the City of Westminster and Liberties thereof more effectually to use the several powers of an Act passed in the 28th year of his present Majesty's Reign intituled an Act for lighting and watching the parishes of Saint Margaret and Saint John the Evangelist Saint Clement Danes Saint Mary le Strand Saint Paul Covent Garden Saint George Bloomsbury in the County of Middlesex and the parish of Christchurch in the County of Surry which Acts Honorable House hath been pleased to enact and ordered giving leave to bring in a Bill

That your Petitioners conceiving that it will be of great utility to the Public and convenience to Inhabitants and others that the Provisions of such Bill should be extended generally to all and every the Parishes precincts and other places in and adjacent to the City of London and Westminster the Borough of Southwark and Liberties thereof so as all persons and persons whomsoever who shall be desirous of having the benefit of being lighted with Gas as aforesaid -

Your Petitioners therefore most humbly pray that Honorable House that leave may be given to bring in a Bill for more effectually lighting the Streets and the Environs with Gas by such ways and means and under such regulations and restrictions as to this Honorable House shall seem meet.

And your Petitioners will ever pray &c.

A PETITION FOR GAS LIGHTS.

answering her helm quickly, and the way made against a strong current, at the rate of two miles and a half an hour."

Canals were much in request for the cheap conveyance of goods, and in July, 1800, the Grand Junction canal was opened from the Thames, at Brentford, to Fenny Stratford, in Buckinghamshire. In the following year the Paddington canal was opened for trade.

Wherever the traveller went, either by road, or river, or canal, he was always sure to find "good accommodation for man and beast!" in the humble way-side Tavern or the more pretentious Coaching Inn, which made up beds and catered generally for a fleeting but well-to-do population. The Hotel proper, as we know it, was but in its infancy, and it has been stated that there were not twenty hotels at that time in all London.

A glimpse at one or two aspects of London in the year 1800 will furnish us with food for thought.

London was regarded "as the best paved city in the world," the main thoroughfares being flagged and kerbed, with sewers under them, and gratings for the water to run into them from the gutters. But the side streets had only "kidney" stones on end, and no sewers.

Drinking water was, as a rule, supplied from pumps, and was greatly inferior to that in use to-day, the laws of sanitation being then in their infancy, and drainage shamefully defective. One branch of industry, long since superseded, was the supply of

spring water for drinking purposes at the rate of a penny or twopence a bucket, according to the distance it had to be carried.

There was no competent Fire Brigade until 1832. Prior to that time each Insurance Company kept a staff of firemen, and engines, but as the Fire Insurance Companies were fewer—sixteen only in 1810—and as the most powerful engine could only throw a ton of water per minute, and the supply of water was much more limited than it is now, the chances of subduing a big fire were slight. Every insured house bore upon it a conspicuous plate, painted in bright colours and gilded, with the name of the Company :—the "Sun," "Phœnix," &c.

TINDER BOX, FLINT AND STEEL.

There was no gas, only twinkling oil lamps flickering with every gust, and going out altogether in a strong wind, and always wanting their wicks trimmed and fresh oil supplied. Pall Mall was lighted with gas on the 28th of January, 1807—the first street of any city so lighted in the world's history. But the secret of gas illumination was known before this time. In 1739 the Rev. Mr. Clayton published a paper in the Philosophical Transactions on the inflammable nature of the gases obtained by the decomposition of pit-coal in heated close vessels, but no practical application of this discovery was made before 1792, when Mr. William Murdock, a native of Ayrshire, holding a position of some importance in the mines at Redruth, lighted his own house and offices in that town on this principle. In 1789 he removed to the machine-making establishment of Messrs. Boulton and Watt, at Birmingham, where he followed up his experiments and erected a gas apparatus on a large scale, and lighted up the building with gas for the celebration of the Peace of Amiens.

It was reserved for a German, named Winser, to bring gas light into use in London. Despite opposition and sarcasm (Sir Walter Scott wrote from London that "there was a madman proposing to light London with—what do you suppose? Why with *smoke!*" and even Humphrey Davy failed to conceive that gas could ever be applicable to house or street lighting) Winser, did, however, on the 28th of January, 1807, cause the long line between St. James' Palace and Cockspur Street to blaze out in a burst of gas jets to the wonder of a great crowd.*

EVENING AND WALKING DRESS FOR LADIES IN 1799.
From F. W. Fairholt's *Costume in England.*

There were no matches, vestas, fusees, or vesuvians. The only means of obtaining a light was from the tinder box, consisting of a flat round box of iron or brass, containing tinder made of charred linen or cotton rags, which, after much striking of the flint, ignited a piece of wood dipped in sulphur. Even the good old Lucifer-match—the inflammable substance of which was a mixture of chlorate of potash and sulphide of antimony acting upon the sulphur on the match—was not introduced until 1827, nor the Congreve match,

*Winser was buried in Kensal Green Cemetery, and his tombstone bears the inscription—"*That* was the true Light which lighteth every man that cometh into the world."

in which phosphorus was substituted for sulphide of antimony, until some years later, while the safety match, with which we of to-day are so familiar, was not invented until 1855.

Postmen delivered letters, and at the same time collected the money for non-paid letters, as there were no postage stamps and no letter boxes. For distribution throughout the country, until 1783, letters were carried on horseback, but in that year mail coaches were first introduced, and these led to a great improvement in the main roads, to the means of communicating generally with people at a distance, and to the extension of the postal service.† In 1801 the General Post Office was in Lombard Street, the first stone of the large offices in St. Martins-le-Grand was not laid until 1824.

Shops were of necessity wretchedly lighted; plate-glass was not known, and the limited wares in tradesmen's windows were exposed behind small panes of very common glass.

There were only eight theatres in all London: The King's, Haymarket; Drury Lane; Covent Garden; Theatre Royal, Haymarket; The Royalty, in Goodman's Fields; Sadlers' Wells; Astley's; and the Royal Circus, afterwards the Surrey.

Coffee houses abounded and much business was transacted at them in the day-time and much social intercourse in the evenings. Many of them provided sleeping accommodation, and some had county reputations so that persons coming up to London from various counties might depend upon either meeting with friends or neighbours, and seeing the county newspaper. All the coffee houses, and also most of the taverns, supplied their visitors with dinner and other food, and in addition "cook shops," as they were called—at which a plentiful dinner could be provided for a shilling or eighteen-pence—were to be found in every part of the town; as well as soup shops and à la mode beef houses.

As to costume, it was as curious and varied as it had been before that period, and has often been since. Soldiers and sailors wore pig-tails; men of mark wore what was called "Jean de Bry" coats—named after a French statesman of the revolutionary days—well padded at the shoulders, and made short in the waist in order to show the startling waistcoat below it; breeches and Hessian boots.

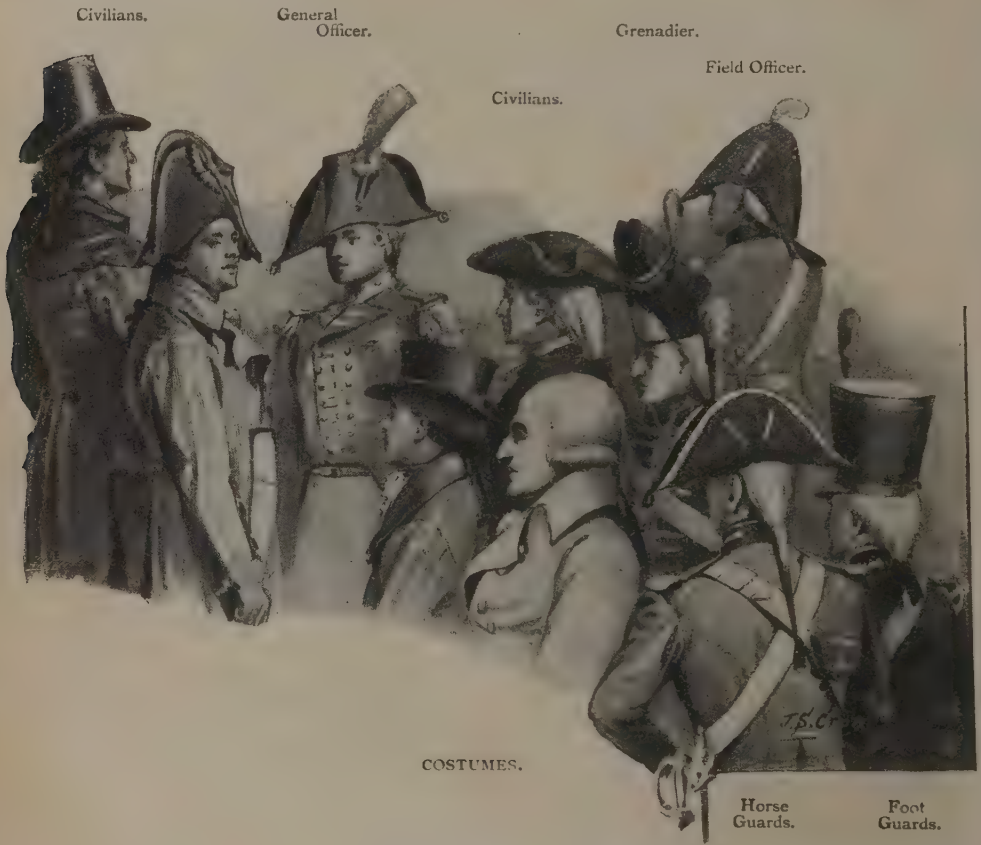
The "Bond Street loungers"—the fast men of the period—wore fancy tail-coats, white satin waistcoats, frill shirts, neck cloths, cassimere breeches with white satin knee-ribbons, and top-boots; beaver hats, powdered heads—for which a tax had to be paid—and a "quizzing glass," dangling on the breast, completed the costume.

Perukes were going out of fashion, but still might be met with freely. There was a keen sense of humour among traders in perukes, who, in view of the decline of the trade, consequent upon "gentlemen wishing to wear their own hair," begged His Majesty to stay the tide of this degeneration. Whereupon another section of the public, unconverted from the old views regarding the need of protection to industry, sent in a petition from the *Body Carpenters* imploring the King to wear a wooden leg, and to enjoin all his servants to appear in the royal presence with the same graceful decoration.

Powdering the hair was still in vogue (although this strange fashion only survived a few years longer), and we are told that "As all the members of the family, including the domestics, had to be powdered; most houses of any pretension had a small room set

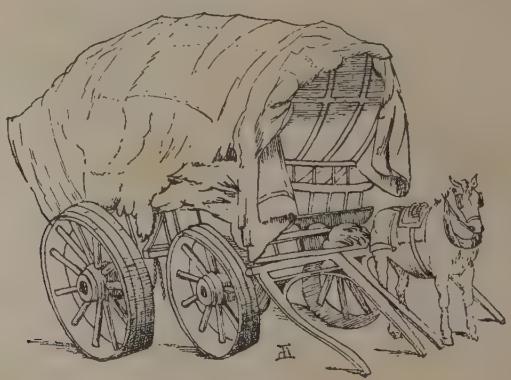
†The first mail coach left London for Bristol, as an experiment, on the 2nd of August, 1784. In the following year they were placed on the chief roads, but not on the north roads until the summer of 1786.

apart for the performance, called 'the powdering room,' or closet, where the person to be operated upon went behind two curtains, and, by putting the head between the two, the body was screened from the powder, and the head received its due quantity, without injury to the clothes."



COSTUMES.

This brief and cursory glance at some aspects of the social life of our country when the century dawned, will perhaps help us, as we proceed to unfold its wonderful progress.



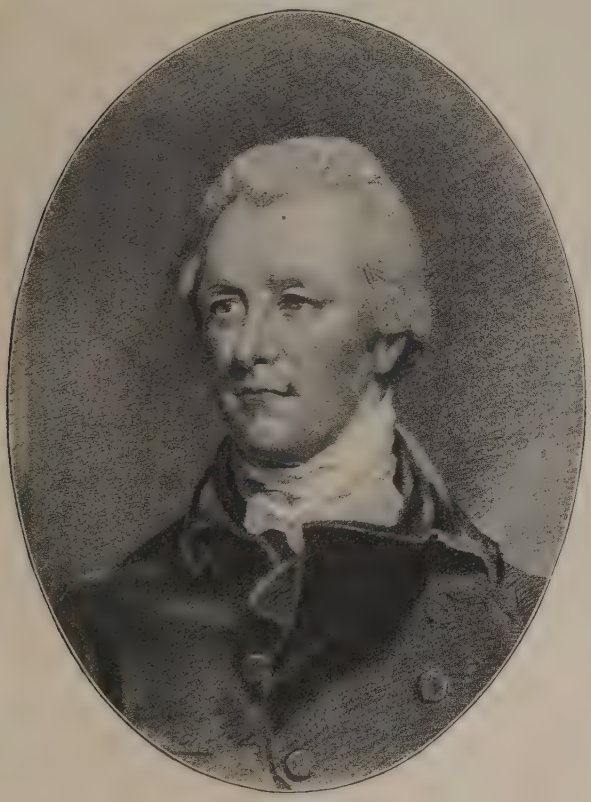
OLD ENGLISH WAGGON.

CHAPTER III.

A BACKWARD GLANCE.

1760–1800.

FOR the better understanding of the state of our own country and its dependencies, the rise and progress of our colonial system, and of our relation to the countries of Europe and the world, it will be well to look back over the forty years during which George III. had occupied the throne, and take, however briefly, a glance at some of the great events which will ever make these years stand out conspicuously in the history of the civilised world, emphasizing those incidents which most influenced the early part of the Nineteenth Century.



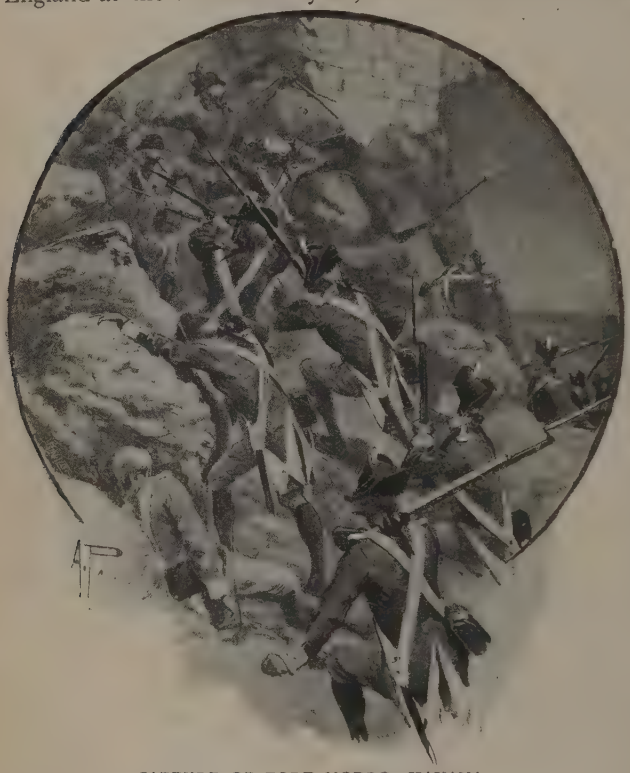
WILLIAM PITT.

When the young King, in 1760, became ruler of an Empire already larger than any previous king had governed, the European struggle known as the Seven Years' War was still in progress—the war that was a continuous series of victories, and determined for ages to come the destinies of mankind in almost every part of the world.

William Pitt, the Great Commoner, the man whose striking eloquence, brilliant statesmanship, and clear perceptions had won for England the high position to which she had now attained, was at the head of affairs, but was not, at that moment, in special favour, for he wished to continue the war. Posing as the "Patriot King" of Bolingbroke's imagination, George, young as he was, had made up his mind to put an immediate end to the war, and at the same time to dispense with the Minister whose popularity he envied and whose ability was immeasurably superior to his own.

His first step was to force into the Ministry, as Secretary of State, his mother's favourite and his own friendly but injudicious tutor, the Earl of Bute—a man after his own heart and ready to do his bidding, but extremely unpopular with the people.

The times were very critical. In August, 1761, a treaty or league, called the Family Compact, had been entered into between the Bourbon powers—France, Spain and Naples—binding them to have common foes and to maintain the integrity of the dominions of each against all comers. It was agreed that Spain should declare war on England at the close of the year; and the idea of Pitt was to anticipate the designs of Spain by declaring war against her, and at once to attack Havana and the Philippines, intercept the Spanish treasure fleet returning from South America, and occupy the Isthmus of Panama. "This is a moment," he said to his colleagues, "for humbling the whole House of Bourbon." But his colleagues did not see it; the Duke of Newcastle, Premier and nominal head of affairs, shrank from so daring a scheme; the King openly sided with those who disregarded the advice of Pitt, for whom there was only one course open. "If I cannot in this instance prevail," he said, "this shall be the last time I will sit in the Council. Called to office by the voice of the people, to whom I consider myself accountable for my conduct, I will not remain in a situation which renders me responsible for measures I am no longer allowed to guide."



CAPTURE OF FORT MORRO, HAVANA.

So on the 5th October Pitt carried his seals as Secretary of State to the King, who accepted them not only without any request that he would resume them, but with the declaration that he applauded the decision of the Council. At the same time, to show his sense of Pitt's high merit, the King made him an offer of any reward in the power of the Crown to bestow.

The war with Spain, which Pitt had predicted as inevitable, broke out in January, 1762. The French West India Islands were the first object of attack, and the squadron, consisting of eighteen ships of the line under the gallant Admiral Rodney, with ten thousand land forces under General Monckton, sailed against Martinique, which was speedily captured. The reduction of Martinique led to a surrender of its dependent islands, comprising Granada, St. Lucia, St. Vincent, and Tobago, and thus the possession of all the Caribbee Islands was transferred to Great Britain. This was followed in the summer by the loss to Spain of Havana, on the north-west coast of Cuba, after a severe struggle. Nine sail of the line and four frigates were taken in the harbour, five were destroyed, and treasure in ready money and valuable merchandise to the value of three millions sterling became England's prize of war. Manila, the

capital of the Philippine Islands, was then taken by us from the Spanish with great slaughter, and with a loss to them of several ships and all their military stores.

In June (1762), on the resignation of the Duke of Newcastle, Bute became Prime Minister, and immediately began to fulfil the wishes of the King by negotiating for peace, even while the expeditions initiated by Pitt were successfully going forward.

The success of the English arms confounded the Bourbon confederacy so much that they opened up negotiations for peace. To this Pitt strongly objected, and declaimed vehemently against a measure "which not only threatened to rob the war of half its glory, but which, in his opinion, was opposed to the best interests of the nation, inasmuch as it was sowing the seeds of further hostilities."

Nevertheless, the preliminaries of peace were approved by a large majority. This was a triumph for the King and for the Earl of Bute, and it rejoiced the heart of the Dowager Princess, who was heard to exclaim, "Now, George *is* King of England." But it did not increase the popularity of either. So disliked was Bute that he only ventured into the streets by night disguised, and by day attended, as Lord Chesterfield affirms, "by a gang of *bruisers*, the scoundrels and ruffians who attend the bear gardens." Nor did the King fare much better than his favourite; he was received with a coldness to which he was unaccustomed, and in some instances with great disrespect.*

The preliminaries of peace were signed at Fontainebleau in 1762 and early in 1763 the Seven Years' War was brought to an end by the Treaty of Paris, between Great Britain, France, Spain, and Portugal. By it, this country finally acquired Canada; Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, Cape Breton, Newfoundland, and Prince Edward Island in North America were also ceded. We gave back to the French Belle Isle in Brittany, and recovered Minorca. Spain, in return for Havana and Manilla, yielded Florida, in America.

The peace was generally regarded as unsatisfactory, as it involved the giving back of most of the previous years' conquests, and as the King had so vigorously urged it, and Bute had carried out his wishes to the letter, both became unpopular, and the favourite was driven from power. His secret working under the influences of the Dowager Princess—the most unpopular woman in the country—and the King; his opposition to Pitt, the people's idol; his open favouritism of Scotsmen; his injudicious cider tax, had created an opposition on all sides, and he resigned, preferring to be "a power behind the throne" with a minister's influence without its responsibility.

Bute was succeeded in the premiership by George Grenville, an excellent lawyer and financier, a man of gloomy religion and bad temper, narrow and pedantic, "One of the most short-sighted and inefficient ministers of modern times." He knew every detail of State business, and revelled in Parliamentary hard work, so much so, that one

*In those days the theatre was the place where popular feeling found its freeest expression, and when, on the night of the triumph, Cibber's comedy of the "Careless Husband" was performed, a passage in the play was caught up by the audience and received with round upon round of vigorous cheering.

The passage was—

Lady Easy: "Have a care, madam! An undeserving favourite has been the ruin of many a prince's empire."

The popular songs of the day were as influential then as now. When, in 1762, Sir Francis Dashwood's cider-tax was under discussion, George Grenville reflected upon his brother-in-law, William Pitt, by saying that the necessity for taxation was due to the extravagance with which the war had been carried on. In the course of his reply, Grenville, in the querulous tone habitual to him, said "I call upon the honourable gentlemen opposite to me to say *where* they would wish to have a tax laid; I say, Sir, let them tell me *where*. I repeat it. Sir, I am entitled to say to them, tell me WHERE." Pitt instantly and indignantly rose from his seat. Every eye was fixed upon him, and presently every member was convulsed with laughter, as, fixing his eye contemptuously upon his brother-in-law and mimicking his languor and monotonous tone of voice, he repeated the words of a popular song by Howard, then familiar to every ear:—

"Gentle Shepherd, tell me *where*."

From that day Grenville was never able to shake off the nickname of "The gentle Shepherd."

"Memoir and Reign of George III.," by J. Heneage Jesse, Vol. I., page 167 Macaulay gives a different version of this story.

day when he fainted in the House of Commons and smelling salts were applied for his restoration, a by-stander exclaimed, "Why don't you give him the Journals to smell too?"

Grenville's first blunder was to run foul of the famous John Wilkes and the political press.

John Wilkes, M.P. for Aylesbury, had achieved some fame as a political writer, and great notoriety by the horrible licentiousness of his private life. He was a remarkably plain man (Hogarth has immortalised his squint), but brilliant, witty, and of great charm of manner. He was, in conjunction with Churchill, the satirist, the Editor of the *North Briton*, a journal pungent, caustic, full of humour, and also of personalities principally—at one time, to the disparagement of Lord Bute and the Scots, at another, to that of the Princess of Wales, and later, of Grenville, the new minister. In the celebrated "No. 45" of that journal, published April 23rd, 1763, was a violent attack on the speech from the throne, in which he charged the ministers with placing a falsehood in the mouth of their sovereign. It would have been much wiser to have let the matter pass than to have adopted the arbitrary and illegal measures to which Grenville resorted. Wilkes was arrested under the power of a "general warrant," which gave authority to seize any person or number of persons and their papers without specifying the names of such persons or the crimes with which they were charged.

He was committed to the Tower, and all London was in intense excitement. Thousands of people thronged New Palace Yard on the day of his trial—which occupied fifteen hours—and the shout of exultation that was raised when the verdict, an order of release, was announced, was such as had never been heard before. *

Subsequently a special jury returned a verdict against the under-Secretary of State for the illegal seizure of Wilkes' papers and awarded £1,000 damages and costs.

Wilkes was now a hero, a patriot, a martyr, in the eyes of the people, but Grenville and his colleagues were determined to hound him to the death. He fled to France, having been expelled from the House of Commons with scarcely a dissentient voice, on the 20th January, 1764. The House of Commons ordered the famous "No. 45" of the *North Briton* to be burnt by the hangman at the Royal Exchange; but the mob raised the cry of "Wilkes and Liberty," beat the constables, and drove away the hangman. Although the demagogue had fled the country, his influence remained, and for years to come he was to be a thorn in the side of the Government.

In February, 1768, after an absence in France of nearly five years, he returned to England, having, in the meantime been outlawed for failing to come up for judgment when convicted of publishing "No. 45" of the *North Briton*, and for writing an infamously licentious poem "An Essay on Woman." A General Election was in progress and Wilkes declared himself a candidate for the representation of the county of Middlesex in Parliament. "Wilkes and Liberty," again became the cry of the mob, and London was in a state of extreme excitement until he was triumphantly returned at the head of the poll. He was rejected by the House of Commons, but being again and again re-elected he was, in 1775, allowed to take his seat. Eventually he became Lord Mayor, Chamberlain of the City of London, and held other offices; he exercised an enormous radical influence on the people for many years; then lived a quiet life towards its end, and died in 1797 in his own house.

The King was inexpressibly annoyed at the whole affair, and in its earlier stages wished Grenville anywhere but in the Ministry. The King tried to re construct it but not successfully, and his effort only produced humiliation to himself.

* The Judge who discharged Wilkes was Lord Chief Justice Pratt, who was afterwards created Lord Camden.

While the Wilkes' affair was in progress, namely in 1764—a year that will ever be memorable—Grenville made another tremendous blunder by introducing the most unwise and injurious measure of his administration—the imposition of a Stamp Tax on the North American Colonies. It was the beginning of the most disastrous series of events in modern history. The important question was at once raised whether the Mother-country had a right to tax her colonies at all, and whether a revenue so raised could be legitimately appropriated to her sole benefit. On the 10th March, Grenville introduced his measure tentatively, just as the House was rising.

Hogarth.

JOHN WILKES.

The moment the news reached America, the same resolve seems to have been arrived at by every man who heard it, to resist the innovation to the death. In due course, a Bill actually imposing duties on stamps required to be placed on law deeds, was passed, and received the royal assent on March 22nd, 1765.*

The King had already become sick and tired of his ministers and longed to have Pitt once more at the helm, but failing in this, the Marquis of Rockingham became Premier; and troublous times were before him.

Only a few months had elapsed since the passing of the Stamp Act when startling news came of the reception of the announcement in America. The thirteen colonies, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Connecticut, Rhode Island (the four New England States), New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia, were unanimously determined to resist the measure. The Virginian House of Assembly was the first to ring out a vehement protest. Massachusetts was the first to suggest a Congress of Delegates from all the other Houses of Assembly, and in 1765 this Congress—"the beginning of American Union"—met to deny the right of the British Parliament to impose the tax.

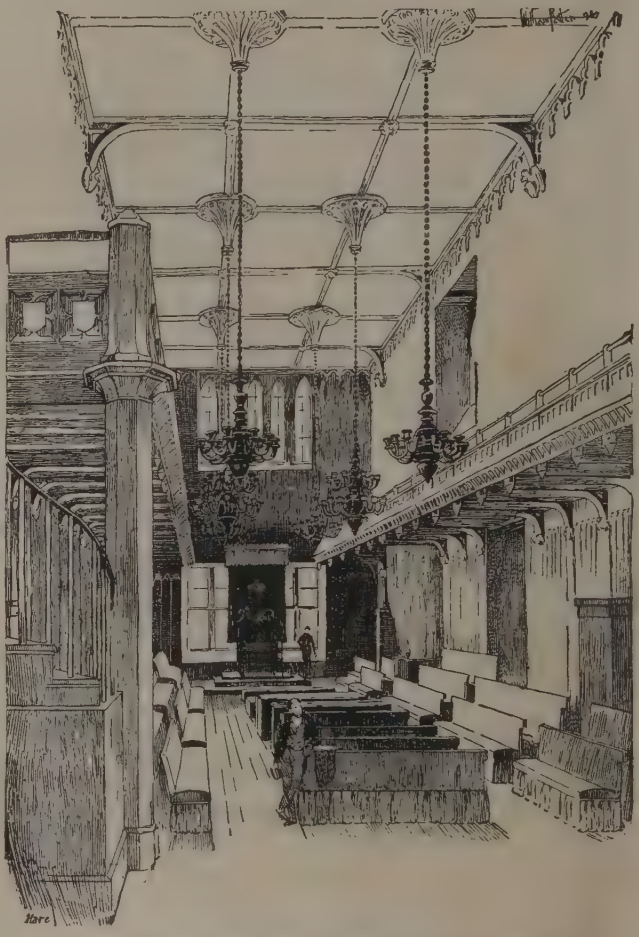
When it was known in America that the royal assent had been given to the infamous Stamp Act, the Colonies assumed an appearance of mourning. "At Boston and Philadelphia, the church bells were muffled and tolled as for the dead. The colours in the ships in the harbour were hoisted only half-mast high, and lastly, when the Act was reprinted and circulated, a likeness of a death's head was substituted for the Royal Arms." But far worse became the aspect of affairs so soon as attempts were made

*About this time an alarming illness of the King, the nature of which was then unsuspected even by the Prime Minister, but has long since been known to have been an attack similar to those that afterwards deprived him of his reason, caused much consternation, especially as no provision had been made for a regency in the event of his death. As showing the state of medical science, it may be interesting to know that when the illness began "His Majesty was blooded fourteen ounces." Six weeks later, as he did not improve and pain had settled into "stitches in his breast," he "was blooded in the foot."

to carry the fatal Act into operation. In more than one city, tumults had taken place which already threatened a civil war. In more than one port, the ships which brought over the stamps were seized, the stamps were burnt, the revenue officers were tarred and feathered and their houses pillaged.

While the threatened storm was brewing, the hopes of the nation centred in Pitt. "This is undoubtedly the most serious matter that ever came before Parliament," wrote the King, and he was right.

There were four courses open to the Ministers :— (1) To adopt Grenville's policy, which was to regard the colonists as rebels and to fight. (2) The King's policy : to insist on the Stamp Act, but to make its application as little irksome as possible. (3) Pitt's policy : to immediately repeal the Act and to have the honesty to say that it was unjust, oppressive, and unconstitutional. (4) The policy of the existing Ministry : to repeal the Act, but in order to uphold the authority of the Mother country, to assert her right to tax the colonies.



THE HOUSE OF LORDS AT END OF LAST CENTURY.

When the great day came for the discussion of the question in the House of Commons, Pitt, lame and ill, rose at the first opportunity. Everybody has read the speech he made, but a passage may be cited here :—

His main contention was that as America was not represented in the British Parliament, Great Britain had no right to tax her people without their own consent. "They are the subjects of this Kingdom," he said, "equally entitled with yourselves to all the natural rights of mankind and the peculiar privileges of Englishmen; equally bound by its laws and equally participating in the constitution of this free country. The Americans are the SONS, not the bastards of England."

It may be mentioned here that it was while the lengthy debates on the repeal of the Stamp Act were in progress, that Edmund Burke appeared and spoke for the first time in the House of Commons, and we have it on the authority of his friend, Dr. Johnson, that his maiden speech "filled the town with wonder."

The Bill for the repeal of the Stamp Act was carried in the Commons by a large majority, and in the House of Lords, after great opposition, by a majority of thirty-four. But the good effect of this measure was spoiled by the Declaratory Act, which asserted the supreme power of Parliament over the Colonies "in all cases whatsoever," thus maintaining the *right* to tax them, which was the crucial point in the dispute.

THE HOUSE OF COMMONS AT END OF LAST CENTURY.

The Rockingham Ministry soon after this resigned. Clouds were gathering in many directions, and what was now wanted, and had become to the minds of many a necessity, was the return of Pitt to unlimited power. The King wrote to him, urging him to come to town, and in due course he came, formed an Administration, with himself the real head of the Government and the Duke of Grafton First Lord of the Treasury.

The joy throughout the country on the return of Pitt to power was considerably lessened when the fact became known that the Great Commoner, the "idol of the people," had accepted a peerage with the title of Earl of Chatham. Never was a coronet better deserved; but never did it seem more to estrange the people from the man. Its effect in France was even greater than in England. At the name of Pitt, the Frenchman trembled; at the name of Chatham, he only looked bewildered.

Early in 1767, Chatham fell ill, was often at Bath to take the waters, and towards the summer had arrived at such a low mental and physical condition that his death was apprehended.

Just as the light of Chatham's life seemed to be dying out, there appeared in the political arena, a statesman with abilities that gave him an extraordinary influence in the House of Commons. This was Charles Townshend, Chancellor of the Exchequer, brilliant, eloquent, witty, and reckless to the last degree. He startled the House by saying "he knew the mode by which a revenue could be drawn from the Americans without giving them offence," and proceeded to unfold his scheme of imposing certain duties on paper, glass, tea, and other commodities imported into the American Colonies. It was the fatal measure that once more set America aflame with righteous indignation and was largely influential in causing England to lose the fairest and noblest of her colonies. It

was passed during the absence of Chatham and it is alleged without consultation with him. Only a few months later, Townshend was seized by fever and died at the early age of forty-two.

The vacant office of Chancellor of the Exchequer was given to Lord North, and the Ministry from this time came to be known as that of the Duke of Grafton, Chatham having resigned in 1768.

At no period during the reign of George III. was the mind of the nation more troubled than now. The Wilkes' riots were causing great anxiety and his taking his seat in Parliament, opened up the whole question of Parliamentary representation. For a long time elections had been subject to open and flagrant bribery and barter of seats, in which the King and "the King's friends" took an important part. The influence of public meetings on English politics was now for the first time beginning to be felt, and from them there went forth such utterances as these :—

"There is a time when it is clearly demonstrable that men cease to be representatives That time has now arrived. The House of Commons does *not* represent the people!"

THE HOUSE OF COMMONS AND WESTMINSTER HALL AT END OF LAST CENTURY.

A new power was at the same time given to the influence of the press by the publication of the "Letters of Junius," the most effective series of political attacks ever directed against a Ministry.

On the 2nd February, 1770, the Duke of Grafton suddenly resigned the office of Prime Minister. In the direst perplexity, with public affairs in a more difficult and dangerous state than at any previous period of his reign, the King selected Frederick, Lord North, the then Chancellor of the Exchequer and Leader of the House of Commons, to be Premier. The King was already much attached to Lord North; he was a strictly moral man in an immoral age; he did not belong to the "Great Families" against whom his sovereign waged constant war, and he shared his abhorrence of the dominion of the mob as represented by Wilkes and his partisans.*

*Lord North was a famous subject for the caricaturist. Walpole says "Nothing could be more coarse, or clumsy, or ungracious, than his outside. Two large prominent eyes that rolled about to no purpose—for he was utterly short-sighted—a wide mouth, thick lips, and inflated visage, gave him the air of a blind trumpeter," while Burke had the audacity to say of him in the House of Commons and before his face: "The noble Lord, after extending his right leg a full yard before his left, rolling his flaming eyes, and moving his ponderous frame, has, at length, opened his mouth!"

Lord North was remarkably good humoured and humorous. Once when a member of the House of Commons spoke contemptuously of him as "that thing called a Minister;" "Well," he said, patting his capacious sides, "to be sure I am a thing. The honourable member, therefore, when he called me a 'thing' said what was true, and I could not be angry with him. But when he added 'that thing called a Minister,' he called me that thing which of all things he most wishes to be, and therefore I took it as a compliment."—Jesse's "Memoirs of George III."

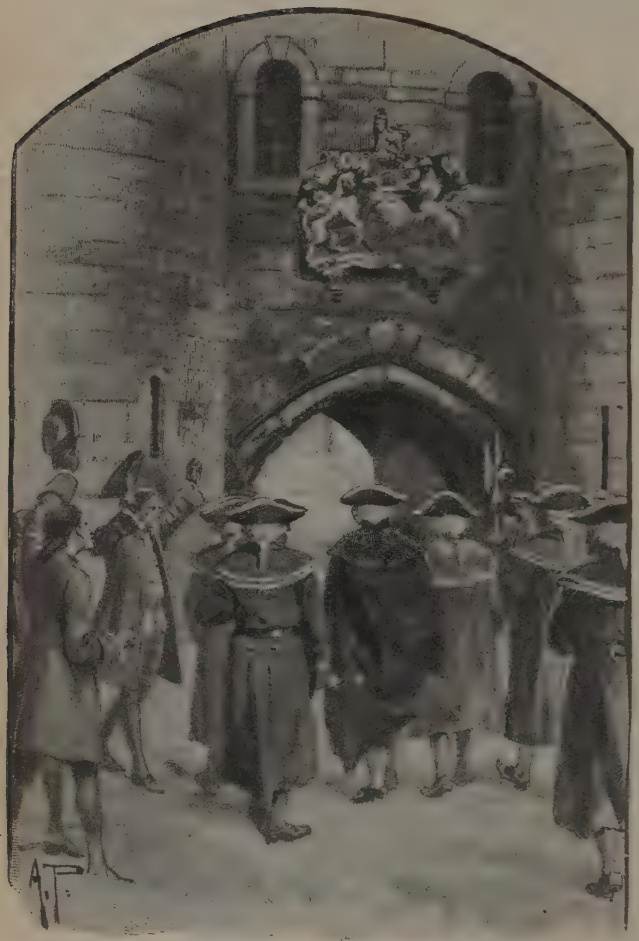
But Lord North, amiable as he was, and not without plenty of administrative ability, allowed himself to be the puppet of the King, to whose stubborn obstinacy he yielded, and to him, more than to any other one man, except the King, we owe the loss of our American Colonies.

Before briefly sketching an outline of that disastrous story, we must record an event which has so greatly influenced the course of public opinion as to change the current of history. Previously to the year 1771, it had been held that reporting and publishing debates of either House of Parliament was a breach of privilege, and had subjected the printer to severe penalties. Editors had endeavoured to evade such penalties by giving fictitious names to the speakers, and by publishing discussions under fictitious titles, as, "A Debate in the Senate of Lilliput," or "A Debate in the Political Club." Dr. Johnson contributed many such reports to the *Gentlemen's Magazine*, and in the *Annual Register*, even so late as 1770, the sovereign was spoken of as the K——, Parliament as the P——, and the Minister as the D—— of G——. Very imperfect and insufficient information was therefore in the hands of the electors as to the conduct of their representatives in Parliament. There were, of course, no recognised reporters, information was gained by stealth, and was sometimes so shamefully inaccurate that this fact became a weapon in the hands of those who wished to keep Parliamentary proceedings secret.

The extent, however, of the power of Parliament to enforce this question of privilege had never been put to the test until 1771, when the nation began to awaken from its long indifference to its own rights, and clamoured for a fuller knowledge of what its representatives were doing. This was regarded as destructive to everything to be venerated in the constitution, and it was moved in the Commons; "That it was an indignity to, and a breach of, the privilege of this House for any person to presume to give, in written or printed newspapers, any account or minutes of its debates or other proceedings," and "That on discovery of the authors, printers, or publishers of any such written or printed newspapers, the House shall proceed against them with the utmost severity."

This was carried by a majority of ninety to fifty-five, and a proclamation was issued prohibiting the publication of debates. It was immediately set at defiance, and six printers were summoned to the Bar of the House. Five put in an appearance, but one named Miller, a freeman of the city, refused to do so; whereupon a messenger was sent for his arrest. But Miller gave the messenger in charge for assault. The magistrates regarded the proclamation of Parliament as without legal force, released the printers, and sent the messenger to prison for an unlawful arrest. This led to the Lord Mayor (Mr. Crosby) and an Alderman (Mr. Oliver) being sent to the Tower. It was a royal progress they made, the populace accompanying them with loud acclamations. They were kept in durance vile to the end of the session, and then their release was celebrated with illuminations and processions and other public rejoicings. No other proceedings against them or others was attempted by Parliament, and from that day forth free discussion was allowed in the press and on the platform without let or hindrance—the greatest safeguard of our constitution.

"A new and wider interest in its own affairs was roused in the people at large, and a new political education was given it through the discussion of every subject of national importance in the Houses and the Press. Stimulated and moulded into shape by free discussion, encouraged and made conscious of its strength by public meetings, and gathered up and represented on all its sides by the journals of the day, public opinion became a force in practical statesmanship, influenced the course of debates, and



LORD MAYOR AND ALDERMAN CONDUCTED TO THE TOWER.

controlled in a closer and more constant way than even Parliament itself had been able to do, the actions of the Government. The importance of its new position gave a weight to the Press which it had never had before. The first great English journals date from this time. With the *Morning Chronicle*, the *Morning Post*, the *Morning Herald*, and the *Times*, all of which appeared in the interval between the opening years of the American War and the beginning of the war with the French Revolution, journalism took a new tone of responsibility and intelligence. The hacks of Grub Street were superseded by publicists of a high moral temper and literary excellence, and philosophers like Coleridge or statesmen like Canning turned to influence public opinion through the columns of the Press." *

No sooner had Lord North come into power than the King found his chance of carrying out his own designs through the Premier. He regretted the repeal of the Stamp Act, he looked upon the Americans as "Rebels," and he designated the eloquence of Chatham as the "trumpet of sedition." Not only did he direct the Minister in all important matters of foreign and domestic policy, we are told, but he instructed him as to the management of debates in Parliament, suggested what motions should be made or opposed, and how measures should be carried. He reserved for himself every bit of patronage in State, Church, Law, and Army, and all this vast patronage he used to bring the Ministry into such a state of subjection to himself that he might be virtual Minister and ruler according to his own will. Whatever blame attaches to the administration of Lord North, "the shame of the darkest hour of English history lies wholly at the door of the King."

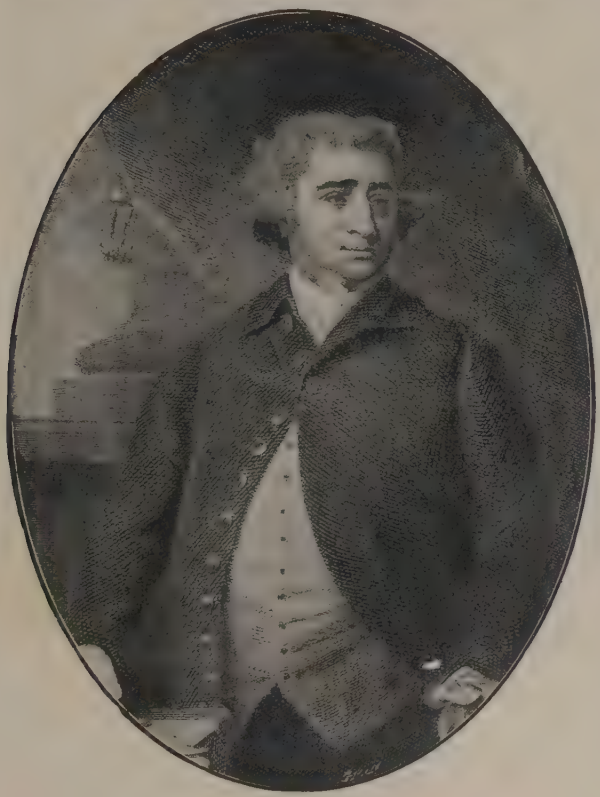
In the session of 1770, Lord North, under this influence, upheld the right of Parliament to tax the colonies; repealed other duties the Americans objected to, but insisted on retaining the tax on tea as an assertion of right on the part of the mother country. For a time America remained quiet, but in 1773 open resistance to the tea tax

* Green's History of the English People, vol. 4, p. 249.

was made. Large quantities of tea were sent out by the East India Company, who possessed a monopoly of the trade, and arrived in Boston harbour on December 16th, when a band of men, disguised as Indians, boarded the ships and threw the tea into the water.

Instead of listening to the advice of Lord Chatham and Lord North, the King required redress for this outrage. Two Bills were passed, one, closing the port of Boston against all commerce, the other, suppressing the local Government of Massachusetts and so violating its charter.

These measures were strongly opposed by Chatham in the Lords, and in the Commons by Burke and the great orator, Charles James Fox, son of Lord Holland; but to no purpose. It was in vain that Chatham sought to rouse the Ministry to a sense of their imminent danger—in vain that he poured out appeal, invective, denunciation—in vain that he brought forward his plan of conciliation founded on the just and temperate demands of the Americans, namely:—"To repeal every oppressive Act relating to America passed by Parliament since the year 1764; to renounce on the part of Great Britain her assumption of a sovereign right to tax her Colonial Dependencies without the consent of their Assemblies, and to guarantee to the several provinces the future and free enjoyment of their immemorial charters and constitutions." Chatham's measure was contemptuously rejected in the Lords by a majority of sixty-one to thirty-two, and Burkes' similar measure in the House of Commons met with a like fate.



CHARLES JAMES FOX.

The great question, not only before England but before the world, was now whether Great Britain was to subjugate her Colonies or whether the Colonies were to achieve their independence. Those who calculated that the Colonies would skrink from fighting and be cowed into submission—and among them were the King, Lord North, and his colleagues—knew nothing of the character of the Americans.

In September, 1774, all the thirteen States, save Georgia, called a Congress of fifty-three delegates at Philadelphia, which, when dissolved by the English Government, met at Concord and drew up a Declaration of Rights, claiming the rights and liberties of Engiishmen, denouncing the two oppressive Acts of the English Parliament, and announcing that they would import no more goods from England nor, after a year,

export any there, until their grievances were redressed. Another meeting was held in the May of next year, but it was the Congress of a revolted nation.

The English made General Gage, governor of Massachusetts and a force of British troops held possession of Boston. At Lexington, fifteen miles north west of Boston, a detachment of General Gage's troops, returning from the destruction of the military stores at Concord, was attacked by the Colonial riflemen and repulsed with a loss of two hundred and seventy men. The Great War of American Independence had begun.

A Congress of the whole thirteen "United Colonies" met at Philadelphia, and measures were taken for general defence, for the levy of an army, and for appointing

LEXINGTON.

George Washington, an able, heroic man, of iron self-control, Commander-in-Chief of the Colonial forces, and, as has been well said, "No nobler figure ever stood in the front of a nation's life."

We do not propose to tell the story of the American War in detail. The famous battle of Bunker's Hill was fought with a loss to the British troops of over one thousand men. The Olive Branch petition was sent to England and rejected, the King in Parliament expressing his determination to "put down the rebellion by force." This was followed by the unsuccessful invasion of Canada by the Americans, the victory of Washington, known as the "Evacuation of Boston," and Howe's defeat of Washington at Brooklyn.

Meanwhile, "the Great Act with which American history begins"—the Declaration of Independence—was signed by the Congress at Philadelphia, on the 4th July, 1776, and the United States sprang into existence amidst the din and carnage of civil war.

In the course of the next year many French officers joined the Americans, and it became evident that the Governments both of France and of Spain were about to take part with the revolted Colonies.

Reverses and successes followed on both sides. At the Battle of Brandywine, General Howe, with Lord Cornwallis, routed Washington; at Saratoga, General Burgoyne had to surrender to the Americans with his whole force, consisting of nearly six thousand men—the first great blow inflicted on the British cause. The severest blow of all was to come; France had been supplying the Americans with arms and military stores, and now set to turn to account the humiliation of England. In February, 1778, a treaty of commerce and alliance was signed between France and the Americans, in which the independence of the latter was acknowledged.

To bring the horrors of the war to an end, every eye in the land was turned towards Chatham, whose name was almost as popular in America as in his own country. Parliament met, the royal speech was acrimonious and generally ill-advised, and the Speaker still talked of the Americans as "obstinate rebels." In moving an amendment to the address, Chatham, in the course of an impassioned speech, cried:—

"You cannot conquer America! If I were an American, as I am an Englishman, while a foreign troop was landed in my country I never would lay down my arms. Never, never, NEVER!"

When, on the 3rd December, 1777, the news of Burgoyne's disaster at Saratoga was known to the House of Commons, the awful and humiliating fact that the "cowardly, disorganised rabble," as they had been contemptuously described, had trampled under foot the ancient military glory of the mother-country, fell like a thunderbolt on the House. Lord North wept, and when the news reached the King, Walpole says, "he fell into agonies." But all too late!

In this crisis Lord Bute, Lord North, and a host of others urged the King to send for Chatham. But the King was obstinate; he would not have this man to rule over him: he would never again put himself in the power "of that perfidious man." He wrote to Lord North, "No advantage to this country, nor personal danger to myself, could make me address myself to Lord Chatham, or to any other branch of Opposition. . . . . I am still ready to accept any part of them that will come to the assistance of my present Ministers; but whilst any ten men in the Kingdom will stand by me, I will not give myself up into bondage. I will rather risk my Crown than do what I think personally disgraceful. It is impossible that the nation should not stand by me. If they will not, they shall have another King, for I will never put my hand to what will make me miserable to the last hour of my life."*

On the other hand, Chatham was equally firm; he would *not* accept office unless he were invested with full powers, and so matters stood until the Duke of Richmond announced his intention to move an address to the Throne for the withdrawal of His Majesty's Armies and Fleets from America. To Lord Chatham's mind this meant the recognition of American independence, and, ill as he was, and acting against the advice of his physician, he determined once more to raise his voice in the debate in the House of Lords.

It was on the 7th of April, 1778, that, pale, agitated, his legs swathed in flannels, he was supported into the House by his two sons and his son-in-law. So soon as the

*Lord Brougham's "Statesmen of George III." Vol 1, pp. 103, 110.

J. S. Copley, R.A.

DEATH OF THE EARL OF CHATHAM.

Duke of Richmond had finished his speech, Chatham rose, pale and feeble, and with uplifted hands thanked God he had been spared to do one more duty for his country.

"I am old," he said, "and infirm, and have more than one foot in the grave. I am risen from my bed to stand up in the cause of my country, perhaps never again to speak in this House. I have made an effort, almost beyond my strength, to come here this day to express my indignation at an idea that has gone forth of yielding up America. My Lords, I rejoice that the grave has not yet closed upon me, that I am still alive to lift up my voice against the dismemberment of this ancient and most noble Monarchy. Pressed down as I am by the hand of infirmity, I am little able to assist my country in this perilous conjuncture; but, my Lords, while I have sense and memory, I will never consent to deprive the royal offspring of the House of Brunswick of their fair inheritance. Where is the man that will dare to advise such a measure? My Lords, his Majesty succeeded to an Empire as great in extent as it was unsullied in reputation. Shall we tarnish the lustre of this nation by an ignominious surrender of its rights and fairest possessions? Shall this great kingdom, which has survived, whole and entire, the Danish depredations, the Scotch inroads, and the Norman Conquest—that has stood the threatened invasion of the Spanish Armada—now fall prostrate before the House of Bourbon? . . . . My Lords, any state is better than despair. Let us at least make one effort, and if we must fall, let us fall like men! My Lords, ill as I am, yet as long as I can crawl down to this House and have strength to raise myself on my crutches, or lift my hand, I will vote against giving up the dependency of America on the sovereignty of Great Britain, and, if no other Lord is of opinion with me, I will singly protest against the measure."*

An oppressive silence, an affecting awe, fell upon the House as these words were uttered, and it was with a sense of relief they listened to the Duke of Richmond's reply. On its conclusion Lord Chatham, in a state of great excitement, again rose to address the House. But he had spoken for the last time; he pressed his hand to his heart, staggered, and would have fallen to the ground had not the Duke of Cumberland and Lord Temple caught him in their arms apparently in the agonies of death.

Grief, consternation, excitement filled the place as the insensible form of the greatest man of his age was borne from the House he had so conspicuously adorned. He was carried to Downing Street, where he remained until sufficiently recovered to be removed to his seat at Hayes in Kent. In less than a month, the great Englishman passed away, and was buried with fitting pomp and splendour in Westminster Abbey.

The war in America continued, and notwithstanding various successes on the part of the English, the heroic Washington persisted, until in 1781, the surrender of Lord Cornwallis at Yorktown, with seven thousand men, practically brought the sanguinary struggle to an end, and the Americans established themselves as a sovereign and independent people.

When in 1778 the Treaty was signed between America and France, in which the Independence of the Colonies was acknowledged, war between England and France followed as a natural consequence. In 1779, Spain joined the hostile confederacy and in the following year England had found still another enemy in Holland.

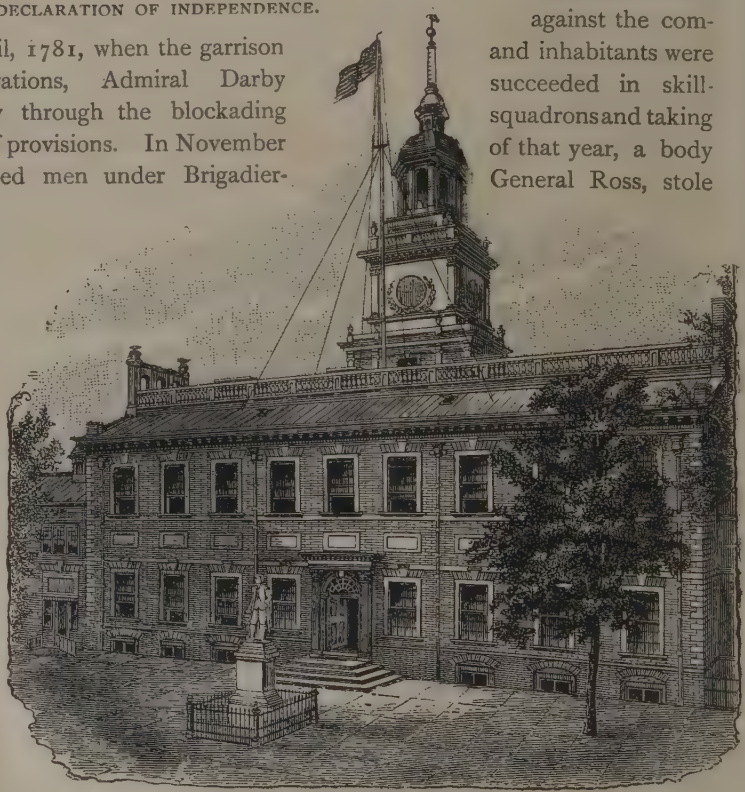
We have not space to record the varying disasters and successes of our fleet under Keppel, Rodney, and Hood in the many naval engagements that made this period memorable. One, however, must be briefly related as it was of far-reaching consequence

*Parliamentary History. Vol. 19.

READING DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE.

to us, and was one of the most brilliant and remarkable feats in modern warfare, namely, the defence of Gibraltar.

For three years the great rock-fortress had been besieged and blockaded by France and Spain, and from time to time there had been severe bombardments; but the gallant General George Elliot had held his own against the combined forces. In April, 1781, when the garrison and inhabitants were suffering great privations, Admiral Darby succeeded in skillfully forcing his way through the blockading squadrons and taking in a plentiful supply of provisions. In November of that year, a body of two thousand picked men under Brigadier-General Ross, stole out in the darkness and made an attack on the whole front of the Spanish lines. So silently did they approach, that they took the Spanish entirely unawares and they fled on all sides, while the men of the garrison spread their fire with such effect that everything combustible was in flames; magazines were exploded, mortars and cannon were spiked, the siege works which had taken



INDEPENDENCE HALL, PHILADELPHIA.

months to erect, and property worth millions of pounds, were destroyed in a few hours, and before daylight Ross and his men returned to the garrison with scarcely any loss.

The besiegers determined to have their revenge, and in the following year (1782) an army of forty thousand men under the Duke de Crillon, who had just conquered Minorca, invested the place on the land side.

Owing to the failure of all plans hitherto employed for the reduction of the Rock, floating batteries of peculiar construction were brought into use. They were ingenious but complex, and were supposed to be impervious to shot and fire; their bottoms were made of thick timber; their sides of wood and cork long soaked in water, with a thick layer of wet sand between them, and raw hides on the outside; the besiegers being sheltered from the fall of shells by a cover of rope-netting in a slanting position and overlaid with wet hides. These huge floating castles were designed to lie moored within half gun-shot of the walls, while eighty barges, full of troops and mounted with cannon of the largest calibre, as well as forty-seven sail of the line, and three hundred smaller craft, were to complete the investment from the sea.

On the 13th of September, the grand attack was made, and it seemed as if all Spain had assembled; dense masses of people stood on the surrounding heights to witness the spectacle of one hundred thousand men making a simultaneous attempt on sea and land to demolish the Great Rock Fortress. Never was there seen a grander spectacle. When the signal was given for hostilities to commence, showers of shot and shell from the land batteries and the ships of the besiegers poured in, while four hundred pieces of heavy artillery played at the same moment on what was hoped would prove a vulnerable spot of the garrison. But General Elliot was ready, and returned the attack with an incessant shower of red-hot balls and shells from the rock, directed with such accurate aim and unremitting vigour, hour after hour, that the Peninsula was involved in one terrific blaze.

Towards midnight two floating batteries burst into flames—the effect of the red-hot balls—and several others were visibly kindled by them, until six ships were soon burning, three more blew up, then another three—their magazines having been swamped—burnt to the water's edge. By sunrise an awful scene was disclosed; hundreds of the besiegers were calling from the midst of the flames for help; whilst others were exposed to equal danger on floating pieces of wreckage. Then it was that British humanity shone as brightly as British valour, when, at the risk of their own lives the besieged made heroic efforts to save the lives of the perishing and panic-stricken besiegers.

The dazzling light of the burning fleets illuminated land and sky and sea; the Rock and shores glowed as though they themselves were molten fire, and those who had come in their crowds to see victory gazed upon a scene of awful ruin and desolation. The outcome of three years' combined attack and mighty labours; the expenditure of millions of money; the waste of thousands of lives, were testified by that glare, that livid smoke, those dreadful shrieks and doleful groans!

The whole armament of battering ships was lost, and with it the guns and stores, and fifteen thousand men perished; whilst the garrison lost no more than three officers and thirteen privates.

For his splendid defence of the garrison, George Elliot became a peer, as Lord Heathfield of Gibraltar, and from the day when he so gallantly repulsed that tremendous onslaught, the Great Rock Fortress has been ours and has been safe from capture.

While wars and rumours of wars were disturbing the world abroad, events were occurring at Home to cause great disquietude. The movement for toleration to Roman Catholics, resulting in an Act for the removal of some of their disabilities in England, and the introduction of a Bill for a similar measure applicable to Scotland, roused a bigoted and fanatical feeling throughout the country. Protestant clubs, leagues, and associations were formed, and a foolish and eccentric young nobleman, Lord George Gordon, M.P., became president of the principal society. The story of the Gordon Riots is too well-known to need repetition. Charles Dickens' "Barnaby Rudge" has made it immortal.

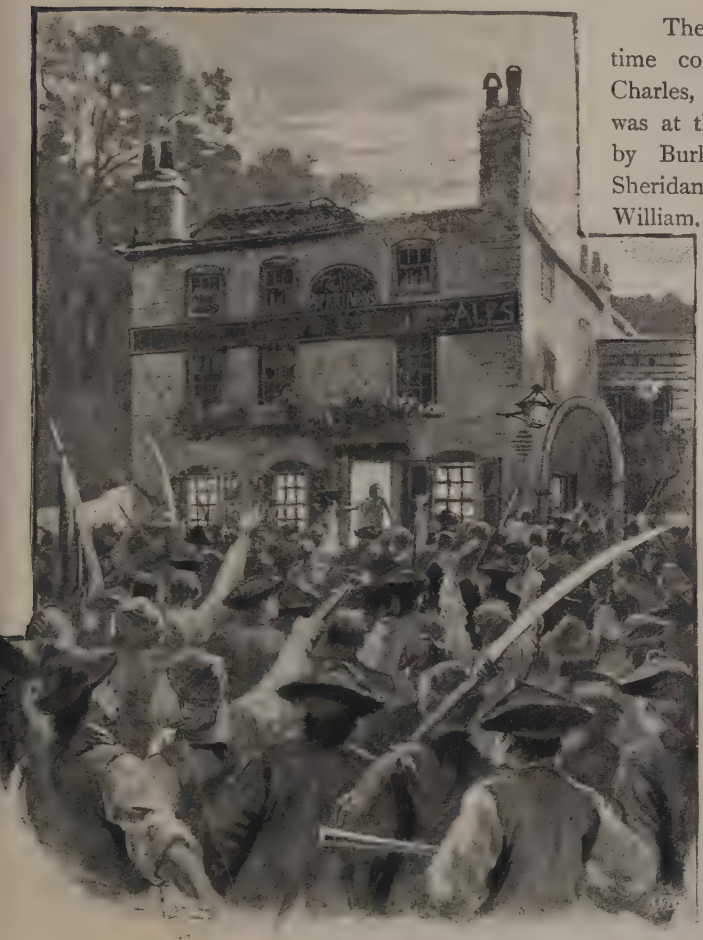
The cost of the mischief perpetrated during the Gordon riots amounted to £180,000, and one hundred and thirty-five persons were brought to trial. Forty-nine were capitally convicted, of whom twenty-nine, chiefly youths and boys, were most unrighteously hanged. Lord George Gordon dropped into insignificance, and died in prison in 1793 at the age of forty-two, having in the meantime given up Protestantism and accepted, with all its pains and penalties, the Jewish religion.

GIBRALTAR.

Parliament was now (1780) entering upon a new and exceptionally interesting chapter of her history. Among the members who took their seats for the first time in the House of Commons were William Pitt (second son of Lord Chatham) for Appleby, in Westmoreland; Richard Brinsley Sheridan for Stafford, and William Wilberforce for Hull.*

There was nothing remarkable in the first speech of Wilberforce; that of Sheridan provoked the remark that he apparently had mistaken his vocation, to which he replied, "It is in me, and by —— it shall come out." Pitt, however, at once made his mark. Speaking in a House of four hundred and twenty-three members, on the second reading of Burke's Economical Reform Bill, he electrified the assembly by his eloquence, and secured a complete success. One of the first to congratulate him on his triumph was Charles Fox, while Burke said he was "not only a chip of the old block, but the old block itself;" and Wilberforce wrote, "I doubt not I shall one day see him the first man in the country."

*Pitt and Wilberforce had just come of age, Sheridan was twenty-nine, and Charles James Fox, afterwards the great rival of Pitt, was then in his thirty-second year.



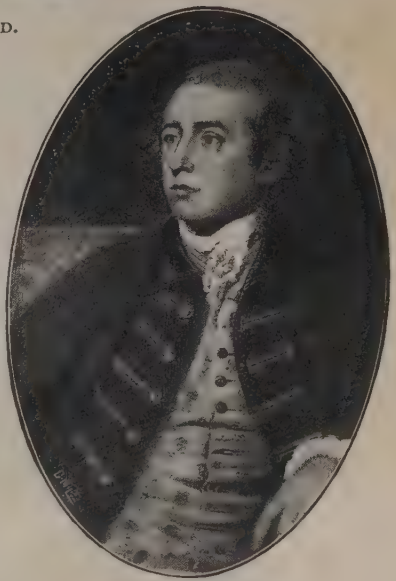
THE GORDON RIOTS. THE SPANIARDS, HAMPSTEAD.

The great Whig party at that time consisted of two sections. Charles, Marquis of Rockingham, was at the head of one, supported by Burke, Charles J. Fox, and Sheridan. The other was led by William, Earl of Shelburne, afterwards Marquis of Lansdowne, supported by Lord Camden, Colonel Barré, John Dunning, and the rising young William Pitt.

When Lord Rockingham formed the new Cabinet, five members were drawn from the Rockingham party, and five from the Shelburne party. The Vice-Treasurership of Ireland was offered to William Pitt, which he somewhat presumptuously declined on the ground that "poor as he was he would not accept any office which did not entitle him to a seat in the Cabinet."

The Rockingham Ministry had only been in existence fifteen weeks when the Premier died. He was succeeded by Lord Shelburne, and William Pitt at the age of twenty-three years became Chancellor of the Exchequer. At the close of the next year (1783) Pitt, not yet twenty-five years of age, became first Lord of the Treasury and Chancellor of the Exchequer, and for seventeen years afterwards (1783-1801) he stood at the head of the Government of England.

During this long period occurred those stirring encounters with Burke, Fox, and Sheridan, unparalleled in their brilliancy and eloquence in Parliamentary history. Year by year Pitt's popularity increased, and to him the country was deeply indebted for the conduct of its wars, for the management of its finances, and for the efforts he made to pave the way for Parliamentary reform.

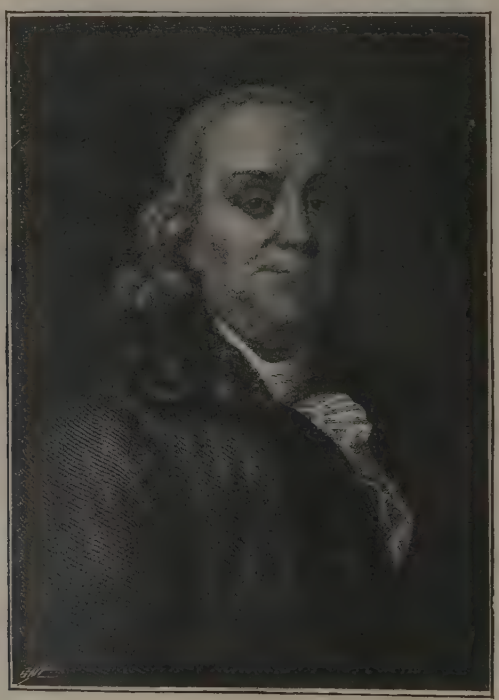


WARREN HASTINGS.

It would be foreign to our purpose to tell the story of Pitt's motions in favour of Reform, rejected a third time in 1785, or of his financial measures which were so influential in promoting trade, lowering the duties on imports, checking smugglers, and generally increasing the revenue.

Nor shall we narrate how, after Rodney's great victory in preventing Jamaica from falling into the hands of the enemy, and the success of the defence of Gibraltar, it became possible to treat with France and Spain on honourable terms, and brought the war to a close by the Peace of Versailles, signed in January, 1783, and in the terms of which England recognised the "United States of America" as an independent power.

It will be sufficient for our present purpose if we now merely name some of the leading events of the latter part of the forty years' reign, all of which will be referred to directly or indirectly, as we follow the story of the Nineteenth Century. Among the great land marks of our history during this period were the impeachment of Warren Hastings, the Governor General of India; the discussions on the slave trade; the outbreak and continuance of the Revolution in France and its effect on our country; our great war with France; the rise of Napoleon Bonaparte, and his exploits; our war with Holland; the mutiny at the Nore; the early career of Wellington and Nelson, and the story of their heroic services; and the Irish rebellion.



BENJAMIN FRANKLIN.

CHAPTER IV.

GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND.

ON the first of January, 1801, the style and title appertaining to the Imperial Crown of Great Britain and Ireland were changed from "George III., by the grace of God, of Great Britain, France, and Ireland, King, Defender of the Faith," to "George III., by the grace of God, of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, King, Defender of the Faith."

SEAL OF GEORGE III.

Pitt's Bill for the Legislative Union of Great Britain and Ireland had been passed in 1799; it had received the assent of the Irish Parliament in 1800, and came into force on the first day of the Nineteenth Century.

The steps leading up to this Act of Union may be briefly recalled.

For many years Ireland had groaned under cruel oppression and neglect. Her reasonable requests had been ignored; her anomalous condition had been disregarded. One of her requests during the American War was that a proper means of defence might be supplied to her ports and populous districts; the response was a contemptible and altogether inadequate provision. This roused the oppressed people, they would defend themselves; and forthwith they raised a volunteer force of 80,000 men. Then they were in a position to ask and demand complete independence in legislation, and the eloquence of Henry Grattan, induced the British Parliament to accede to an Irish Parliament, sitting in Dublin and passing its own laws, subject to the approval of the King. But it was a sham Parliament, composed of Protestants of the most bigoted type, while the bulk of the population, five to one, were Catholics. The Protestant Parliament proceeded to make laws for the Catholics of a most unjust and oppressive nature

The Catholics could not exercise the right of voting for their representatives in Parliament; could not hold any office under the Crown; could not be magistrates or hold any corporate offices in towns: could not be solicitors, or sheriffs, or physicians; could not bear arms, could not marry Protestants, or, if they did the priests were liable to capital punishment. This state of things, accompanied by grossest corruption and intrigue, lasted until 1793; then, despite the wish of Pitt to emancipate the Catholics, if he could—(and also the Presbyterians, who, although they had formed a good half of the volunteers, were in almost as evil a case) and notwithstanding certain concessions that had been made to the Catholics, they gave up all hope of justice, and a reign of terror set in which culminated in the great rebellion of "'98." The success of the American colonists in establishing their independence; the revolution in France; and the spread of republican opinions, roused a spirit of agitation hitherto unknown in the long history of Ireland's sorrows. A society of United Irishmen, chiefly Protestants, was formed, whose object was to make Ireland entirely independent of Great Britain. It was their wild desire that the French should annex them to France, and Theobald Wolfe Tone, a barrister, and the founder of the Society of United Irishmen, went to America and France to invite and make plans for an invasion. In December, 1796, the French were ready to make a descent upon Ireland, to co-operate with her, numerous and organised for insurrection as she was, and to strike a deadly blow at England.

HENRY GRATTAN.

On the 20th of that month, General Hoche, the conqueror of the Vendée, embarked at Brest with fifteen thousand troops. Admiral Joyeuse had been appointed to the naval part of the expedition with eighteen ships of the line, besides frigates and transports, but at the last moment he was superseded by Vice-Admiral Morard de Galles. Scarcely had the fleet left the harbour than a violent storm arose; the winds fought against France as they had fought against the Spanish Armada, and the fleet was dispersed here, there, and everywhere.

The frigate which carried General Hoche, chased by British ships, had to take refuge in Rochelle; eight vessels reached the coast of Ireland and entered Bantry Bay, but saw nothing of their leader or of any other French vessels, and, owing to the tempestuous weather, the troops, being unable to land, as they had ardently wished, returned to Brest. Twelve vessels were wrecked or captured, and the invasion that might have lost Ireland to the English Crown ended in disastrous failure.

Although the invasion failed, it had aroused every evil passion in Ireland, and scenes of cruelty, tyranny, and bloodshed became the order of the day; five hundred thousand men, by whom the most savage atrocities were committed, were banded together in conspiracy.

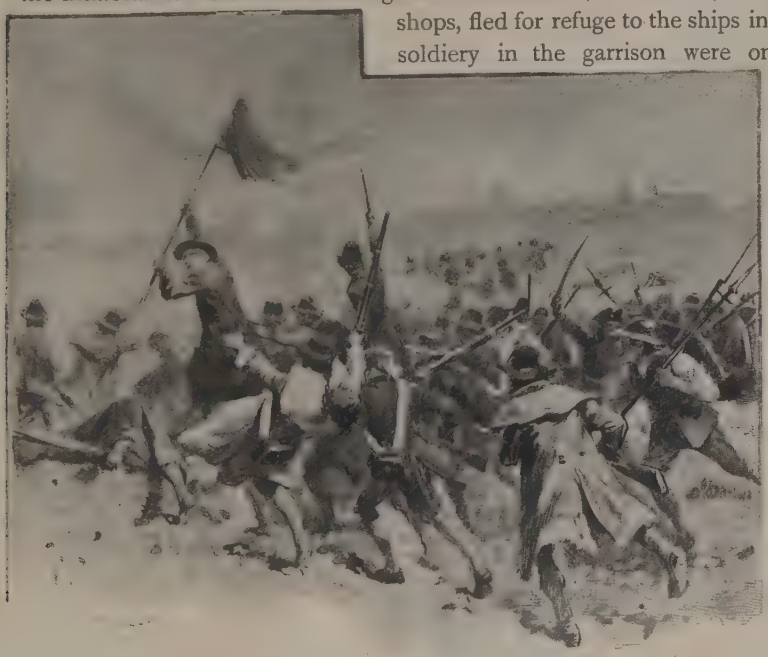
When the Government became fully aware of the state of things, its action was prompt and decisive. Lord Edward Fitz-Gerald, brother of the Duke of Leinster, one

of the leaders of the rebellion, was arrested after a desperate resistance in which he received a fatal shot in the shoulder and died in extreme agony some weeks later; two others of the ring-leaders were also arrested, John and Henry Shears, and from them a Government agent artfully wormed out the intelligence that on the 23rd of May (1798) a general rising was to take place.

That rising was not intended to be confined to Dublin, but was to embrace the whole kingdom, and the signal for its commencement was to be the stoppage of all the mail-coaches. This was effected, and immediately there were skirmishes in all parts of the country. Ulster, where it is said ten thousand Irishmen were enrolled, not agreeing with the tactics of the leaders, declined to enter the contest.

The first organised attack, after martial law had been proclaimed, was on the garrison of Carlow, consisting of four hundred and fifty men under Colonel Mahon, who was assailed by about fifteen hundred insurgents. They were met by so destructive a fire from the garrison that they fled and took refuge in houses, many of which were set on fire by the soldiers, and the refugees perished in the flames. Five hundred of the assailants fell, and two hundred were either hanged or shot, while not an individual of the garrison was so much as wounded. Elsewhere, the rebels, undisciplined and acting as a capricious mob rather than a national force, fought their skirmishes, urged on by the priests, with a ferocity unequalled by the most savage tribes.

On the 26th of May the standard of rebellion was unfurled in Wexford, and Father John Murphy, a Romish priest, placed himself at the head of the insurgents and marched with a force of seven thousand men to Enniscorthy, where the garrison was attacked and forced to yield. The militant priest then advanced towards the town of Wexford, where the inhabitants were thrown into great consternation; multitudes, closing their houses and shops, fled for refuge to the ships in the harbour. The soldiery in the garrison were only twelve hundred strong, while their opponents numbered at least fifteen thousand, and thinking that discretion was the better part of valour, they promptly retired from the scene of operations. Then the insurgents poured into the city in their thousands, armed with pikes, and scythes, and rusty muskets; broke open the



"FATHER JOHN MURPHY PLACED HIMSELF AT THE HEAD OF THE INSURGENTS."

prison to set some of their leaders free, brought back in boats all those that had fled to the ships in the harbour, and everyone who was recognised as obnoxious to their cause was run through with their murderous pikes. When the insurgent forces ultimately retired from the town, they left a certain number of their body behind them to furnish supplies to the camps, issue proclamations, and put Protestants to death. The mode of putting them to death was brutal. They were brought from the prisons and led, in companies of from ten to twenty, from the bridge, preceded by black flags, guarded by pike-men, and accompanied by a howling and execrating mob. A few were then shot, but generally two rebels stood before and two behind each victim, into whom they thrust their pikes and held him suspended in the air, writhing in torture until he expired, when they threw his body into the river, and the crowd, which consisted mostly of women, expressed their savage joy with loud huzzas.

ENNISCORTHY BRIDGE AND VINEGAR HILL. *H. Lawrence, Photo.*

At Carrickburn Mountain, in the South-West, the rebels under Bagnal Harvey were defeated, after an engagement of nine hours' continuance, with a loss of nearly two thousand men, while on the royal side about three hundred fell, among whom was Lord Mountjoy, colonel of the Dublin Militia.

A little later, twenty-seven thousand men under Michael Murphy, a priest, marched against Arklow and made a desperate attempt to take the garrison. In the midst of the attack Father Murphy was brought down by a cannon shot, and his followers, losing heart, beat a retreat towards Gorey, where it was not deemed advisible at the time to follow them.

On the 21st of June the insurgent army was encamped on Vinegar Hill, North-east of Enniscorthy, when General Lake surrounded their position with a strong force of English troops. The camp was stormed, the rebels were signally defeated, and with their dispersion the Irish rebellion came to an end.

Throughout the struggle the rebels had been expecting the active co-operation of France. Considering that the population of Ireland was then little less than one-third of the whole population of the United Kingdom, that it was largely in possession of arms, and almost wholly disaffected, it is quite impossible to say what would have been the extent of the danger had the promised assistance of France arrived in time. Happily for all, the French force under General Humbert did not land on the coast of Mayo until August, just two months after the rout of Vinegar Hill. In that interval the rebellion had been completely crushed, its instigators had been tried and executed at Dublin and elsewhere, and the British Cabinet had appointed Lord Cornwallis Lord Lieutenant of Ireland.

When General Humbert landed, therefore, he found himself in a country, cowed, exhausted, and panic-stricken. Depending on his own troops, he marched towards Castlebar, attacked the opposing forces three times his own number, and made Castlebar his headquarters. But Lord Cornwallis, seeing the imminence of the danger, had taken the field in person, and surrounding the French Army with thirty thousand men, forced their General to surrender. So ended the insurrection in which an enormous number of lives were lost, variously estimated at from thirty thousand to sixty thousand, and property of untold value was destroyed.

A SECOND SEAL OF GEORGE III.

In 1800, as we have already said, the Irish Parliament assented to the English Parliamentary resolutions passed in favour of Union in the previous year, and on the 1st of January, 1801, the Imperial Union Banner floated for the first time over Dublin Castle. The terms of the Union were, that one hundred Irish members should become part of the House of Commons at Westminster, and that twenty-eight temporal and four spiritual peers should sit in the House of Lords. All restriction on trade was withdrawn, and taxation was proportionately distributed between the two peoples.*

Not only were the style and title appertaining to the Imperial Crown altered on the 1st of January as regards Ireland, but also as regards France. In the new heraldic arrangement, the title "King of France" was omitted, and the Fleur-de-lis no longer appeared on the armorial flags and banners. It may be mentioned that the title "King

* The debts of Great Britain and Ireland were not adjusted until 1817.

of France" had been borne by the monarchs of this country for four hundred and thirty-two years—since the forty-third year of the reign of Edward III. Our foreign official correspondence was henceforth carried on in the English language instead of in French, as had hitherto been the custom.

For many years the ascendancy of Pitt had been undisputed; the Opposition was entirely powerless and almost silenced; and it was said that Parliament met for little else than to register the Ministers' decrees. It was not until the Union of Great Britain and Ireland that Parliamentary history resumed its usual interest, and the animation of party Government was restored.

Far-seeing men like Mr. Pitt, Lord Castlereagh, and Mr. Canning recognised the fact that the Union would be but a mere name unless substantial concessions were made to the Irish Roman Catholics, and that it would be better to make them straight away than to have them forced by agitation. But almost the whole of the members of the Established Church, as well as the majority of the two Houses of Parliament, were opposed to this view, and the old King, who was never a far-seeing or a very cultivated man, held the idea in abomination. He conceived the opinion—and whenever he did conceive an opinion he generally stuck to it, willy nilly—that concession would be fraught with great peril to Church and State, and that for him to concede would be a violation of his Coronation Oath. He was confirmed in this by the two highest authorities to whom he could appeal—the Archbishop of Canterbury and the Lord Chancellor, both of whom held strong Protestant views on the question.

It is recorded by his faithful equerry, General Garth, that one morning the King desired his Coronation Oath to be once more read out to him, and then he burst forth into some passionate exclamations, "Where is that power on earth to absolve me from the due observance of every sentence of that oath? . . . No, I had rather beg my bread from door to door throughout Europe than consent to any such measure!" A few days later he read his Coronation Oath to his family, asked them whether they understood it, and added "If I violate it I am no longer legal sovereign of this country, but it falls to the House of Savoy!"

It was a common saying with the sovereigns of the House of Hanover, when pushed into a corner on any vital question, or when they stood at bay with their Ministers, "I had rather go back to Germany," and this threat was also freely used at this time.

The position of Pitt was one of extreme difficulty. He "never thought, as some seem since to have thought, that the Union could stand alone; he never deemed it a divine instrument, admirable and venerable by its own natural essence. He considered it as only a part, and not even the most important part, of a great healing policy in Ireland; and that, almost if not quite simultaneously, the other parts should be applied, the last limitations of the Catholics removed, the clergy, other than those of the Established Church, provided with stipends, the oppression of tithe abolished. These were inseparable constituents of his scheme. Had his hands been free, he might possibly have even dealt with the evils of the land system, at least as regards absenteeism. Who will say that, followed up by large, spontaneous, and simultaneous concessions of this kind, the policy of the Union might not have been a success?"*

Pitt's hands were, unhappily, not free. The bigoted King would not hear of Catholic emancipation, and worked himself up to such a pitch of excitement on the subject that it was feared he would have a serious, if not fatal, return of his old malady. That the King was perfectly sincere there can be no doubt, and Fox was wrong

* "Pitt," by Lord Rosebery, p. 197

when he said that "the King's mention of the Coronation Oath was one of the most impudent and disgusting pieces of hypocrisy he had ever known."

Pitt could not go dead against the King, whose symptoms of insanity had, as was feared, returned; he could not disregard the saying of his royal master on the question of Catholic emancipation, "I count any man my personal enemy who proposes any such measure." The time was not ripe to go full tilt against the bigotry of the King and the bigotry of the bulk of his subjects, or to face the distrust of Catholics and Irishmen, and Pitt resigned, after having held the premiership for seventeen years.

His successor was Mr. Henry Addington, afterwards Lord Sidmouth, and the "Ministry of no Talents," as the Addington Ministry was called, was safe, conservative, undistinguished and stupid. It only existed while a lull in the incessant wars lasted, and then made way for the return of Pitt to his old place in the affection of his King and country.

THE PARLIAMENT HOUSE, DUBLIN.

CHAPTER V.

GREAT BRITAIN AND FRANCE.

PITT withdrew from office in February, 1801, and in March, Lord Hawkesbury, Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs, was in negotiation with France for peace. In order to follow the stirring events that marked the early years of the century, we must take a rapid survey of some of our relations with France and other European nations since the outbreak of the French revolution.

When, in 1774, Louis XV, "the meanest, basest, and most profligate creature that ever disgraced a throne," died, France was hopelessly in debt; the people were bowed to the dust by shameful taxation; liberty had ceased to exist; the Bastille was full of prisoners, thrown there without any specific charge against them, at the mere will or whim of the monarch; religion had died out among the upper classes; priests and rulers were wholly given over to licentiousness and extravagance; the poor were starving, in some cases only keeping body and soul together by living on roots, nettles, and garbage.

When France, with her population of twenty-five millions, had thus sunk to the lowest depths of moral degradation; when her one hundred and fifty thousand noble families had monopolised every eligible position in Church, State. and Army; when the Government of the country was merciless; when despotism had reached its height; when forced labour was employed and punishments were brutal; when the nation was bankrupt and the people were in despair, Louis XVI, mild, good-natured, and incompetent, came to the throne. He had difficulties to contend with greater than those we have named, for the teachings of Voltaire were spreading throughout the country, and even the upper classes were beginning to share his abhorence of tyranny, and to feel the force of his strictures on the evils of the times; while the writings of Rosseau, especially the "Discourse on the Origin of Inequality," the "Social Contract," and kindred topics, were stirring the hearts of the people to their depths and causing them to cry out with "an exceeding great and bitter cry" for deliverance.

The revolt of the American Colonies, and the share taken in it by the French, aroused the public mind to enthusiasm, developed their ideas of republicanism, and strengthened the desire of the nation to throw off the tyranny of despotism and misgovernment. Pamphlets setting forth the only means that could save the nation from ruin teemed from the press; secret meetings to discuss the rights of the people were held, followed by the establishment of societies for propagating their advanced views, until, step by step, the antagonism between the people and the government took definite shape and the French Revolution, the most momentous event in its issues and effects in all modern history, began.

In the month of May, 1789, the King summoned the representative body known as the States General (the Three Estates of the Kingdom) consisting of nobles, clergy and commons—a body which had not assembled since the days of Richelieu—to meet at Versailles, when the members declared themselves the legislature, and, taking the name of the National Assembly, assumed the government of the country.

Only a pretext was wanted by the mob to produce open insurrection. It was known that thirty thousand soldiers were encamped between Paris and Versailles, and that the King had refused to withdraw his troops; the mob, therefore, must find its means of self-defence, and in the course of one day forty thousand men formed themselves into an army to oppose the oppressors: instruments of warfare were gathered together, shops of gun-smiths were broken into and plundered, and the Hôtel des Invalides, the storehouse of muskets and artillery, was entered and despoiled.

Thus armed, they rushed with one accord to the Bastille, which typified to them all that was vile in despotic power, and, despite its enormous strength, they captured the prison-fortress, murdered De Launy, its Governor, and carried his head, raised high on a pike, in barbarous triumph through the streets.

Neurdein, Photo.

VERSAILLES—THE CHAPEL.

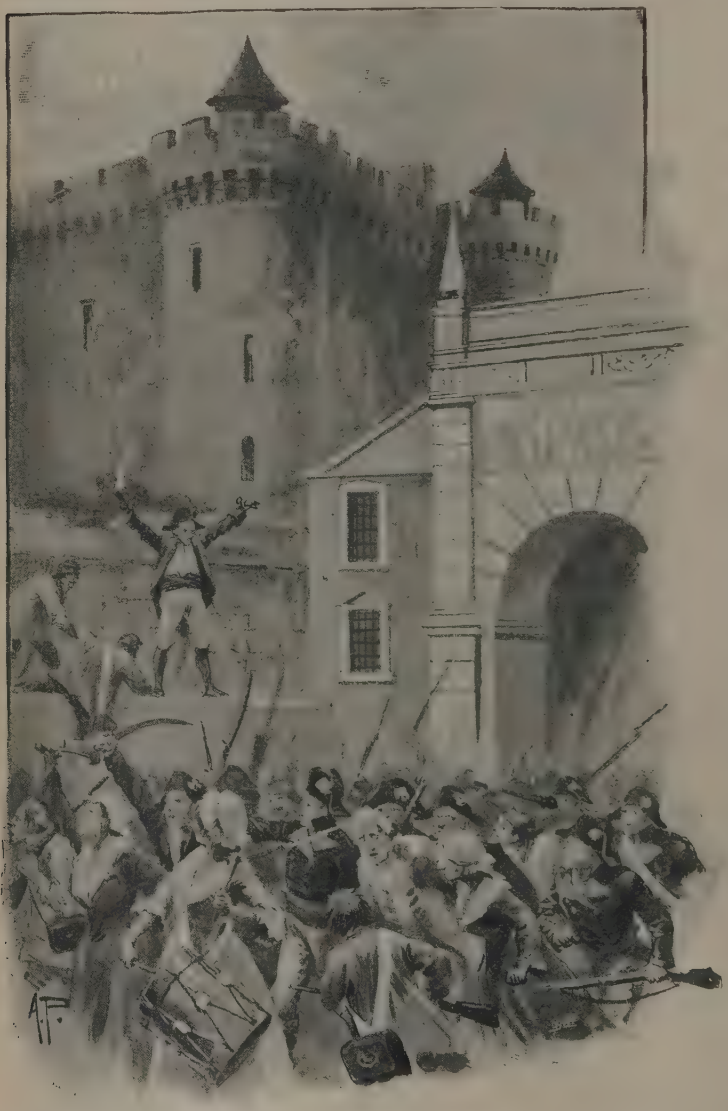
In October (1789) the rabble marched to Versailles accompanied by some of the National Guard—a body of civic militia—and violently entering the palace, compelled the King and Queen to instantly accompany them to Paris.

Powerless to resist, prisoners in the hands of a licentious mob whose insults and indecencies were revolting, the Royal authority had ceased to exist, and the Monarchy was but an empty name. A Constitution, roughly drawn up, was accepted by the weak and defenceless King in place of his old despotic power. The National Assembly was now all-powerful; it remodelled the Courts of Judicature, confiscated ecclesiastical property, abolished feudal rights, extinguished hereditary titles, established popular sovereignty, and—set up the guillotine.

From the first outbreak of the Revolution the populace indulged in indescribable atrocities, invented the cruellest forms of torture, and gave way to fiendish passions which

would have disgraced savage races. It is recorded that sometimes the heart of a victim would be plucked out and shown to the crowd, and pieces of human flesh would be mingled with the wine which the drunken enthusiasts quaffed to the confusion of tyrants.

In June (1791), sick at heart and unable in the very least degree to resist the torrent of evil which surged around him, the King planned an escape from Paris. He was to proceed to Varennes, where an escort was to take him to a place of safety. But "the best laid schemes of mice and men gang aft aglee," and while the poor King was waiting at one end of the town, his horses and escort were waiting at the other; and so it happened that he was intercepted and ignominiously brought back to Paris.



"THEY CAPTURED THE PRISON-FORTRESS AND MURDERED DE LAUNY."

Violence and excess in Paris still continued, and the storming and sacking of the feudal homes of the flower of the French nobility, the rising of the people throughout the land, the banding together of section after section of the masses, headed by blood-thirsty demagogues, went on apace.

On the 20th of June (1792) thirty thousand pikemen, with the ferocious Santerre at their head, rushed with furious cries to the Tuileries, broke into the palace, and insulted the King with demands they knew it was impossible for him to concede. He bore their insults with quiet dignity, merely giving for answer:—"This is neither the time nor the way to obtain your demands from me."

At a restaurant in the Rue St. Honoré sat a young man of twenty-three, conversing with a friend, when the mob from the faubourgs—a motley crowd, armed with pikes,

sticks, and axes, were making their way in delirious excitement to the Palace. "Let us follow this canaille," he whispered to his friend. They went; they saw the mob break into the Palace without opposition, and they saw the King appear at one of the windows with a red cap on his head. "It is all over henceforth with that man," said the young fellow to his friend. "How could they allow those despicable wretches to enter the Palace? Why, a few discharges of grape-shot among them would have made them all take to their heels." The young man was Napoleon Bonaparte, then a captain in the Grenoble Artillery, and his friend was Bourienne, who tells the story in his "Memoirs."

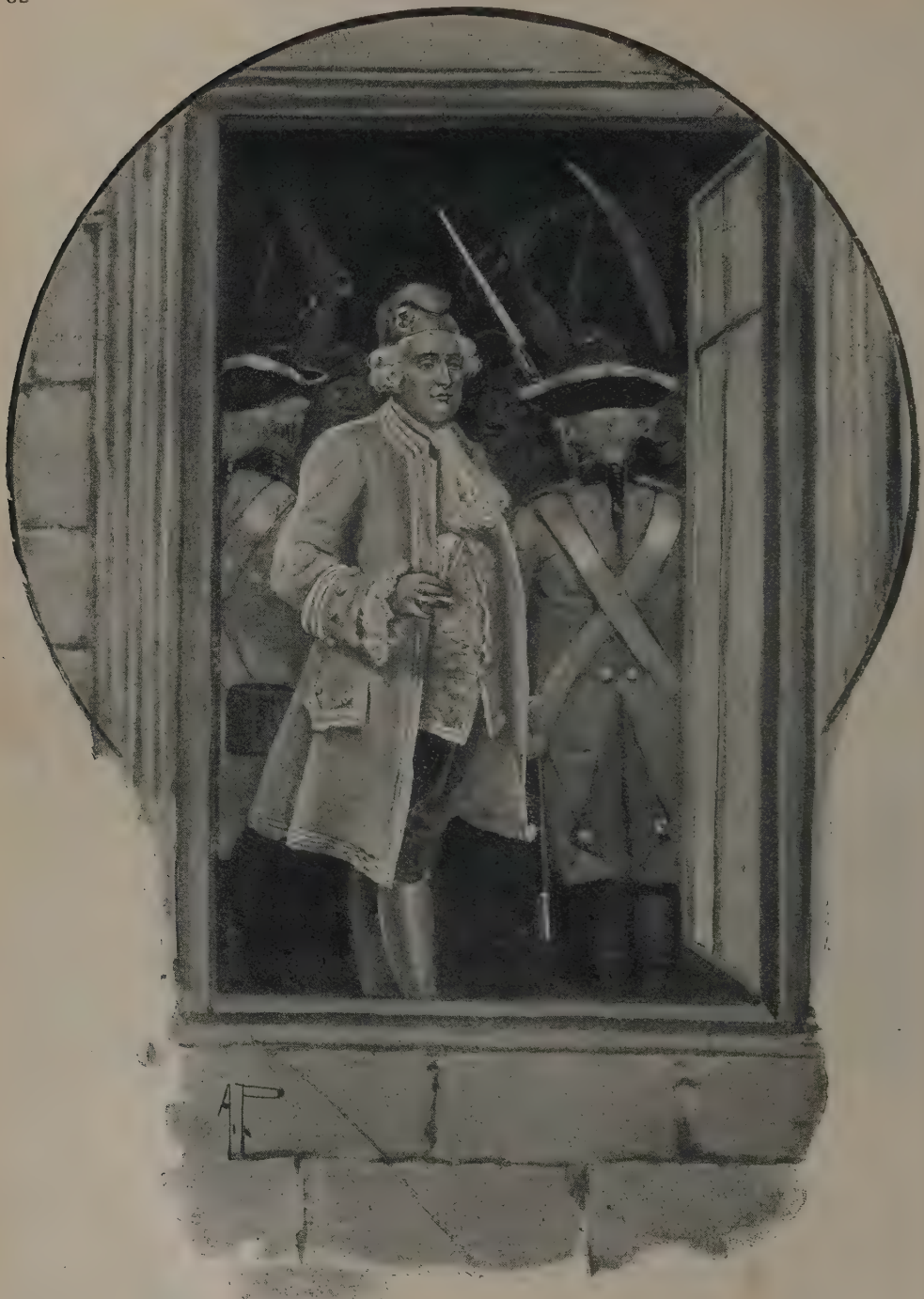
It was the flight of King Louis from Paris, followed by his capture and confinement in the Tuileries, that first gave rise to the project of foreign intervention. He was the hostage of a people familiar with outrage and bloodshed, and his position was regarded

London Stereo Co., Photo.

PALAIS DES TUILERIES.

as a matter of European concern. Soon after this it became evident that a crisis was approaching. A cry was raised, "The country is in danger;" all France was in motion, and multitudes flocked to Paris determined to overthrow the monarchy, in fact, as it had already been done in principle.

Intelligence of the state of affairs in Paris had sent a thrill of horror and alarm throughout Europe, and invasion by the allied powers was threatened. Frederick William II., King of Prussia, and the Emperor Leopold, of Austria, brother to Marie Antoinette, met at Pillnitz, with the determination to restore the royal authority in France, and their united forces were placed under the command of the Duke of Brunswick. This prince passed the French boundaries with seventy thousand Prussians, and nearly as many Austrians and Hessians, and issued a sanguinary and



"THEY SAW THE KING APPEAR AT ONE OF THE WINDOWS."

insulting proclamation, reproaching the usurpers of authority in France for having troubled social order, overturned legitimate Government, committed outrages upon the King and Queen, invaded the right of German princes in Alsace and Lorraine, and

unnecessarily declared war against Hungary and Bohemia. All this was as ill-advised and foolish as it could be. But when the further demand was made that Louis XVI. should be liberated and his authority restored, or the destruction of their city would follow, it was more than could be borne. All Paris rose and cried for the dethronement of the King, and on the night of the 10th of August—the most awful night in its consequences in French history—Danton raised the cry: "To Arms!" Santarre led forth his fifteen thousand insurrectionists, cannon was planted all through the city, and Paris was in the hands of an infuriated mob.

They seized the Hôtel de Ville, marched forward thirty thousand strong, and stormed the Tuileries, ruthlessly massacred the Swiss guard, and forced the King and his family to take refuge in the hall of the National Assembly. The Deputies protected the person of the King, but committed him a prisoner to the Temple.

Neurdein, Photo.

HÔTEL DE VILLE, PARIS.

Meanwhile, to diminish the number of their internal enemies, Robespierre, Marat, and other chiefs of the Jacobins, planned the massacre of all royalists and suspected persons confined in the prisons of Paris. This diabolical plot was executed by the fiendish populace, and eleven hundred persons were ruthlessly slaughtered.

The Reign of Terror was established, and spread its shocking excesses throughout France. The allied invaders, through failure in procuring accurate information as to the real state of affairs, met with severe reverses and were compelled to retreat, leaving Paris in a much worse state than they found it.

We need not tell the story of the Convention, as the National Assembly began to be called, bringing the King to trial, pronouncing him guilty of treason against the sovereignty of the nation, and condemning him to death. On the 21st January, 1793, he was led to the scaffold, amid the execrations of the mob. His last words were:—

"I die innocent; I forgive my enemies, and you, unfortunate people——" His voice was drowned by the beat of drums; he bowed his head to the fatal stroke of the guillotine, and thus, on this unhappy prince, "was avenged the long account of insolence, oppression, and tyranny connected with his race."

The murder of his Queen, Marie Antoinette, soon followed. She had been transferred from the Temple to a common dungeon of the Conciergerie; after two months' confinement she was brought to trial, and on the 16th of October was taken in a common cart with her hands tied behind her, to the scaffold, where, with a firm step and only pity in her face for the infuriated mob surrounding her, she submitted calmly to her fate.

Delaroche.

MARIE ANTOINETTE LED TO THE SCAFFOLD.

The failure of the ill-advised Prussian invasion had brought about the ruin of the Monarchy, and the destruction of Louis and his family. "The kings threaten us," said Danton, "we hurl at their feet as gage of battle, the head of a king."

When the news of the murder of the King reached England, the whole nation went into mourning; the theatres were closed, and the people clamoured for war. War with the Republic became no longer a matter of choice, and M. Chauvelin, the French Ambassador, received notice to quit the British dominions within eight days. The Convention did not, however, wait to receive a challenge, but at once (February 1st, 1793), declared war against "the king of Great Britain, and the Stadtholder of Holland." Spain was soon after added to the enemies of France, and the new Republic had to contend against a coalition of all the leading powers of Europe.

Great Britain was on the eve of the longest, the most expensive and most sanguinary war in which, up to this time, it had ever been her evil fortune to be engaged. The gigantic struggle that ensued lasted for twenty-two years with only a slight cessation, and

the part played in it by England, though marked by severe disasters, was crowned by glories and sacrifices in men and money unequalled in our history.

It is impossible to dwell upon the early years of this European struggle. We must confine ourselves to those incidents which appertain to the Nineteenth Century; but a few notes—buoys to mark the current of events—may be briefly given here.

The views of the English Parliament and of the British people on the French Revolution in its earlier stages were strong and varied. The majority of Englishmen regarded it with favour, thinking that the French were about to establish a model Government; but those opinions changed considerably with the Reign of Terror. On the working classes, who were in a state of discontent, it roused a spirit to combine, despite the Combination Laws, which made such a proceeding criminal. The writings of Tom Paine were doing for them what the writings of Voltaire and Rosseau had done for the French masses, and in process of time, revolutionary riots took place in Dundee, Sheffield, and elsewhere, at which sympathy with France was openly declared. To put an end to this state of things, Pitt called out the Militia, forbade the export of arms and corn to France, and passed the Alien Bill.

EDMUND BURKE.

Pitt's attitude to the question may be given in his own words:—"This country," he wrote, "means to persevere in the neutrality hitherto scrupulously observed with respect to the internal dissensions of France, and from which it will never depart unless the conduct held there makes it indispensable as an act of self-defence."

In November, 1790, Burke published his famous work, "Reflections on the French Revolution." In it he foresaw the course it would take, the crimes it would lead to, and the effect the spread of its principles would have on the English people. Roughly speaking, Burke desired to see the establishment of an aristocratic constitution; Pitt sought to maintain the Royal power; Fox wished to extend liberty and equality. Discussions on the French Revolution led to the dissolution of the long and memorable friendship of Burke and Fox, which had survived the vicissitudes of a quarter of a century. Burke denounced the new Constitution of France "as the unprincipled, plundering, ferocious, bloody, and tyrannical democracy of a people whose Government was anarchy, and whose religion was Atheism." To Fox, the French Republic was the "most stupendous and glorious edifice of liberty that had been erected on the foundation of human integrity in any time or country."

For two years after the death of Louis XVI, France was the scence of unutterable horrors, and it has been stated that a million of persons were barbarously murdered; the thirst for blood was insatiable, the fury of passion indescribable, and the story of the daily procession of carts with victims for the guillotine is only too well-known. Girondists, Communists, and Jacobins, each in turn spent their blind fury; and not until Robespierre, the incarnation of everything that was devilish, fell a victim to the popular hate, did the Reign of Terror come to a close.

When it ceased, two parties remained in Paris to contend for superiority; the Committee of Public Safety and the Liberators, or Thermidorians, so named from the day in the Republican calendar on which they achieved their triumph.

Eventually the Convention proceeded to form a new constitution, the Directory, under two councils:—that of the five hundred members with whom all laws were to originate, and that of the Ancients (every member being over forty years of age), which had authority to pass or reject such laws. The executive power elected from the two councils was placed in the hands of five Directors.

When a revolt of the sections occurred, Barras was the head of the armed force of the Government, and a second in command being required, he said to his colleagues, Tallien and Carnot—and the words, simple though they were, decided the fate of many European thrones:—"I have the man whom you want; a little Corsican officer, who will stand on no ceremony."

Müller.

THE LAST VICTIMS OF THE REIGN OF TERROR.

Napoleon was sent for, the Conventional forces were placed at his disposal to defend the palace he had seen attacked and carried by the mob on the fatal 10th of August. Soon after, on the retirement of Barras, Napoleon was made General-in-Chief of the Army of the Interior, and, a little later, he obtained the chief command of the Italian Armies, and so a way was opened for his advancement, through a marvellous career of victory, to the Imperial throne of France.

France laid down the gage of battle in 1793. "This will be a long and dangerous war," said Burke, and the words were prophetic. The enthusiasm and energy of the French were irresistible. They conquered the Austrian Netherlands, and Germany on the left bank of the Rhine. They occupied Holland, expelled King George's cousin, the Stadtholder, and defeated George's second son, the foolish and incompetent Frederick, Duke of York. They took Savoy and Nice from the King of Sardinia, and put down the royalist and Catholic revolts in La Vendée and Brittany. In 1795 Prussia, Spain,

and some of the smaller States, were frightened into peace, and Holland (now a republic under French control) and Spain joined the war against England.

In 1796, Napoleon, in a campaign of unexampled brilliancy and success, drove the Austrians out of Italy, forced them to save themselves by the Treaty of Formio (1797)—which left Italy to the French—and arranged for a conference to settle Germany.

Next year (1797) the French combined the fleets of Spain and Holland with those of France against England. Our plucky admirals soon made short and sharp work with Spain. Admiral Sir John Jervis, with Commodore HORATIO NELSON as second in command, attacked the Spanish fleet off Cape St. Vincent and won a splendid victory, which proved that Britannia still ruled the waves, although, at about this time, the great Mutinies at Spithead and the Nore were causing intense alarm in England. The victory of Jervis, for which he was made Lord St. Vincent, was soon followed by that of Admiral Duncan off Camperdown, against our antagonists of former times—the Dutch, who, under Admiral de Winter, fought with amazing courage and intensity, but were beaten after four hours' conflict. For his gallant services, Duncan gained the well-earned rank of Earl of Camperdown.

Napoleon's successes led him to develop a grand and ambitious scheme for the abolition of the English Monarchy, and the conquest of our possessions in India; and, emulating the glory of Alexander, to acquire the rule over the Empires of the East. Egypt was to be the basis of his operations, and, in 1798, he landed in Alexandria with twenty thousand troops, having taken Malta from the Knights of St. John of Jerusalem, on the way. A toilsome march across the desert and "forty centuries looked down upon him" as he fought the battle of the Pyramids, and Egypt was subdued.

Meanwhile there was following him a watchful, inflexible enemy. Nelson was on his track, roaming the seas in search of the French fleet. He found it—thirteen ships of the line—anchored in Aboukir Bay; and, cutting in between the French ships and the shore, brought the French between two fires. "By the morrow," said he, "I shall have gained a victory, or a place in Westminster Abbey." The victory was complete; nine of the French vessels of the line were taken, two were burnt, and of the four frigates one was burnt and another sunk. Two only escaped. The battle of the Nile was one of the most splendid victories of modern times, and all the world applauded the courage and genius of Nelson, now created Baron Nelson of the Nile.

Still pursuing his dream of Eastern conquest, Napoleon moved the French army from Egypt into Syria, took Joppa, and proceeded to Acre, the key of Syria, where Sir Sydney Smith, one of Nelson's captains, with a force of British seamen and marines, captured his battering train and, after a siege of sixty days, Napoleon retired with a broken army and almost a broken heart, for he had "been baffled for the first time in his life!" The dream of Eastern conquest was hopeless. "That man made me miss my destiny!" he said of Sir Sydney at a later period of life.

Napoleon returned to France and by the *coup d'état* of the 9th of November, 1799, (the 18th Brumaire of the Revolutionary calendar), he abolished the Directory and became First Consul, with despotic power. Thus the great struggle for the sovereignty of the people ended in a military despotism more absolute than France had ever known before.

One of the first acts of Napoleon, as Consul, was to write a letter to George III. making suggestions for peace.

His specious letter, having all the appearance of a seasonable message of peace and good-will, did not deceive either the King or his advisers, and the summary manner in

which the overtures of Napoleon were rejected, and the determination of England to continue the war, aroused a spirit of intense hatred in the First Consul, whose chief ambition was now to crush the power of England. But a lull in the storm of war was necessary and it came in 1802, not, however, until there had been some hard fighting in the meantime in the general European war. In 1800, Napoleon crossed the Rhine and drove the Austrians behind the Inn; he crossed the snows of Mont. St. Bernard, invaded Italy, and crushed the Austrian army on the plains of Marengo, thus restoring Italy to the French; while the republican General, Moreau, utterly defeated the Austrians at Hohenlinden with the loss of twenty-five thousand men, and thus led to the triumph of the French in South Germany. In 1801, despairing of further resistance, the Austrians signed the Treaty of Lunèville and recognised all French conquests.

Meanwhile, at the end of 1800, England resolved on the expulsion from Egypt of the French armies left there by Napoleon, and a British force under Sir Ralph Abercromby was sent to attack them. On the 24th of March, 1801, he fought the famous battle of Aboukir (or Alexandria), defeating the French General, Mènou, with great loss. But the greatest loss of all was that of the humane, heroic, and religious Abercromby. Despite the fact that he was extremely short-sighted and was to a great extent dependent upon the officers about him on the battle field, he was always foremost in the thick of the fight and exposed himself to imminent peril. On the day of the great victory he was surrounded by the French in the hottest part of the fight, and received a sabre wound in the breast and a musket ball in the thigh. "He took no notice; and several of his officers came to him for conference and went away again, without perceiving that he was wounded. It was the trickling blood which betrayed him at last. When all was secure, and the entire defeat of the French ascertained beyond doubt, the old hero sank, faint, into a hammock, and was carried to the Admiral's ship, where he died on the 28th of March, well aware, it is hoped, of the doom of the French in Egypt."* Eventually, under General Hutchinson, who took up the command, Rosetta, Cairo, and Alexandria were taken, the French were cleared out of Egypt, and Egypt was restored to the Sultan of Turkey.

About this time, the eccentric, or insane, Czar, Paul I. of Russia, a tool of Napoleon, for whom he had a boundless admiration, formed an Armed Neutrality of the Northern Powers against England in which Sweden, Denmark, and even Prussia joined. This led to immediate action and Nelson was sent to Denmark.

The command of the expedition against Denmark was nominally in the hands of Sir Hyde Parker, actually in those of Nelson, who was second in command. Up to the year 1797, Nelson had been engaged against the enemy upwards of one hundred and twenty times; he had assisted at the capture of twenty-eight vessels of war, and taken or destroyed fifty sail of merchant vessels. Then followed the great battle of the Nile. Now, he was to engage in the hottest and most terrible conflict in which he had ever borne a part. The Danes were ready for defence with one hundred pieces of cannon mounted on the Crown Batteries, at the entrance of the Sound, and a line of twenty-five two-deckers, frigates, and floating batteries moored across its mouth.

When Sir Hyde Parker hesitated whether to proceed by the Sound, under the guns of Cronenburg Castle, or round by the Belt, Nelson grew impatient. "Let it be by the Sound, or the Belt, or anyway, only, let us lose not an hour!" he said. So by the Sound they went; the guns of Cronenburg could not reach them, and the fleet,

*Parliament voted a monument in St. Paul's Cathedral to the memory of Sir Ralph Abercromby and his widow was made a peeress.

accompanied by frigates and smaller vessels, passed safely within a mile of the Swedish coast.

The fleet of the Danes and their allies numbered over forty sail of the line. When the proper time came Nelson offered to go into action with ten ships of the line; but his admiral gave him twelve and moved with the rest of the fleet to the mouth of the Sound. The Channel was narrow and tortuous, and all buoys had been removed; the gallant Hardy, therefore, went in a small boat to examine the channel between them and the enemy, approaching so near that he sounded round their leading ship with a pole, lest the noise of throwing the lead should attract attention and discover him. On his return he reported the practicability of the channel and the depth of the water up to the enemy's line. The danger of proceeding to an attack was obvious; three of his squadron grounded, and owing to the fears of the pilots, the anchors were let go nearly a cable's length from the enemy, whereas had they proceeded a little further they would have reached deeper water, and the victory would have been effected in half the time. "I experienced in the Sound," said Nelson, "the misery of having the honour of our country entrusted to a set of pilots who have no other thought than to keep the ships clear of danger, and their own silly heads clear of shot. Everybody knows what I must have suffered; and if any merit attaches itself to me, it was for combating the dangers of the shallows in defiance of them."

While Nelson was pacing the quarter deck of his ship, a shot through the mainmast knocked the splinters about. "It is warm work," he said to one of his officers, "and this day may be the last to anyone of us at a moment. But, mark you, I would not be elsewhere for thousands." The fight, which commenced about ten in the morning, was proceeding fiercely when, at one in the afternoon, Sir Hyde Parker signalled for the action to cease. It was reported to Nelson, who continued to walk the deck and appeared to take no notice of it. The signal officer met him at the next turn, and asked if he should repeat it. "No," he replied, "acknowledge it." Presently he called after him to know if the signal for close action was still hoisted; and being answered in the affirmative, said, "Mind you keep it so." He now paced the deck, moving the stump of his lost arm in a manner which always indicated great emotion. "Do you know," said he to Mr. Ferguson, "what is shown on board the commander-in-chief? No. 39." Mr. Ferguson asked what that meant. "Why, to leave off action!" Then shrugging up his shoulders, he repeated the words, "Leave off action! No! d——m me, if I do! You know, Foley," turning to the captain, "I have only one eye; I have a right to be blind sometimes"—and then, putting the glass to his blind eye, in that mood of mind which sports with bitterness, he exclaimed, "I really do not see the signal!" Presently he exclaimed, "D——n the signal! Keep mine for closer battle flying! That's the way I answer such signals. Nail mine to the mast." *

Admiral Graves disobeyed the Commander-in-chief in similar manner, and the other ships of the line, looking only to Nelson, continued the action. About two o'clock a great part of the Danish line had ceased to fire; some of their lighter ships were adrift, and some had struck. It was difficult to take possession of them as they were protected by the batteries of an island, and they themselves fired on the English ships as they approached. This irritated Nelson. "We must either," he said, "send on shore and stop these irregular proceedings, or send in fire-ships and burn the prizes;" and with that presence of mind peculiar to himself, and never more signally displayed than now,

* We have given this story as told by Robert Southey.

he determined to secure the advantage which he had gained and open a negotiation. He went into the stern gallery and wrote to the Crown Prince thus :—

"Vice-Admiral Lord Nelson has been commanded to spare Denmark, when she no longer resists. The line of defence which covered her shores has struck to the British flag ; but, if the firing is continued on the part of Denmark, he must set on fire all the prizes that he has taken, without having the power of saving the men, who have so nobly defended them. The brave Danes are the brothers, and should never be the enemies, of the English."

ADMIRAL NELSON.
Aged 43.

Captain Sir Frederic Thesiger was sent in with this letter under a flag of truce. During his absence the remainder of the enemy's line eastward was silenced ; the Crown batteries continued to fire until the Danish Adjutant, General Lindholm, returned with a flag of truce, when the action closed. His message from the Crown Prince was to enquire what was the object of Nelson's note. The Vice-Admiral replied : "Lord Nelson's object in sending the flag of truce was humanity ; he therefore consents that hostilities shall cease, and that the wounded Danes may be taken on shore. Lord Nelson will take his prisoners out of the vessels, and burn or carry off his prizes as he should think fit. . . . Lord Nelson, with humble duty to His Royal Highness the Prince, will consider this the greatest victory he has ever gained, if it may be the cause of a happy reconciliation and union between his own most gracious Sovereign and his Majesty the King of Denmark."

The proposal was accepted, hostilities were suspended, and the next day Nelson landed and negotiated in person with the Prince. At a repast which followed, Nelson bore willing testimony to the valour of his foes, and told the Prince that of all the engagements in which he had taken part, this was the most tremendous of them all. "The French," he said, "fought bravely, but they could not have stood for one hour the fight which the Danes had supported for four."

The battle of Copenhagen put an end to Napoleon's hopes of overthrowing the English naval supremacy. A few days before that battle, Paul I. of Russia, fell in a midnight attack by conspirators in his own palace, and with him fell the Confederacy of the North. His son and successor, Alexander, at once made peace, surrendered English prisoners and property, and an arrangement was effected between Great Britain and the Northern powers as to the rights of neutrals.

Everyone, everywhere, was now so weary of war that from all quarters there was a cry for peace, or at least for a lull in the universal carnage. England, although she had not gained any of the ends she had anticipated by the war, was the first to take action.

On March 21st Lord Hawkesbury, Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs, was in negotiation with M. Otto for peace, and there was great excitement in London and throughout the country as to the result. It was not, however, until the last day in September that an answer was received from Napoleon, accepting the English proposals.

Lord Hawkesbury's letter to the Lord Mayor of London was as follows :—

"Downing Street,
October 1st, 1801,
At Night.

My Lord,

I have great satisfaction in informing your Lordship that preliminaries of peace between Great Britain and France have been signed this evening by myself on the part of His Majesty, and by M. Otto on the part of the French Government. I request that your Lordship will have the goodness to make this intelligence immediately public in the city.

I have the honor to be, etc.,
HAWKESBURY."

This message, in the absence of the Lord Mayor from the Mansion House, had to be conveyed to his private residence at Clapham, and then taken by him to the City, where he read it to the citizens ; first at the Stock Exchange, and afterwards at Lloyd's Coffee House, at the bar of which it was subsequently posted, that being the place where merchants most did congregate. How the news spread through the country shows the state of the times. The mail coaches were placarded with the words, in large letters, "Peace with France!" The drivers wore sprigs of laurel in their hats, and from mouth to mouth the glad news was communicated.

When the Peace was duly ratified at Amiens on the 27th of March, 1802, there were great rejoicings ; all London was illuminated, fireworks and pistols were let off in the streets, and the people cried "Peace, peace!" But there was no peace. It was but a pause, to be occupied in preparation for a renewal of war. Yet it marked the close of the earlier revolutionary struggle for supremacy in Europe.

TOMB OF MARIE ANTOINETTE, ST. DENIS.

CHAPTER VI.

NAPOLEON BONAPARTE.

THE first attempt at regicide by means of an "Infernal Machine," as the French called it, was made in 1800, and was directed against the First Consul, Bonaparte. The machine consisted of a barrel of gunpowder, placed on a cart to which it was strongly secured, and was charged with grape-shot so disposed around the barrel as to be scattered in every direction by the explosion. The fire was to be communicated by a slow match. The Bourbon conspirators, utterly regardless of the indiscriminate slaughter that might ensue, determined to place the machine in a street through which it was known the First Consul would pass on his way to the opera, and made their calculations for the explosion at the exact moment his carriage should pass the spot.

On the 14th December, Napoleon drove out "on pleasure bent," but never in the whole course of his charmed life did he run a greater risk or meet with a narrower escape. St. Regent, one of the conspirators, applied the match and an awful explosion took place. Houses were damaged, twenty-three people were killed on the spot, and fifty-three were badly wounded, including St. Regent. But Napoleon passed on scatheless—the explosion took place the moment he had passed beyond the reach of harm. If he had fallen—what rivers of blood, what thousands of human lives, what millions of hard-earned money would have been spared!

The bitter hatred of the English people to the very name of Napoleon up to the time of the peace, is indescribable—then, for a short time, it relaxed somewhat in vigour, only to be renewed when he again declared war and threatened to invade our shores. Even while peace was in negotiation, and during the time it was in force, his name was the one paramount throughout the length and breadth of the land. Everywhere there were reminders of him. When Pitt brought forward his budget in 1801, it was to meet the heavy expenses of war, and interest on loans amounting to over one million and three quarters, and then new taxes were proposed; and further taxation was made on tea, paper, pepper, sugar, raisins, and other commodities of daily life.

Not only were the English people reminded of Napoleon as they felt the pinch of poverty, but there were scattered throughout the country over twenty thousand French prisoners of war, mostly able-bodied seamen for whom their Government, by an order of December 21st, 1799, refused to make any provision. They were in evil case, for bread was dear, famine was imminent, and the presence of these prisoners occasioned much discussion. This was the position. "It is the custom of all civilized nations to feed the prisoners they take. Of course the French prisoners were kept at the expense of the English Government until, a few years previously, reports were circulated of their being starved and ill-treated. The French Government, in hopes of stigmatising the English Ministry as guilty of such an enormous offence, offered to feed the French prisoners in England at its own expense; a proposal which was readily accepted, as it saved much money to this country; but the French Government afterwards discontinued its supplies and thus paid a compliment to English humanity at the expense of its purse."* But it did not relieve the people of the presence of the hated Frenchmen.

**Morning Post*, Sept. 1st. 1801.

On the 25th March, 1802, the Treaty of Amiens was concluded between Great Britain, France, Holland, and Spain, and among the terms were :—(1) That England should restore to France and her allies all her conquests, except Trinidad—conquered from Spain,—and Ceylon—conquered from the Batavian Republic (Holland). (2) Turkey was to be included in the Peace and to lose no territories. (3) Malta, recently taken by England from the French, was to be restored to the Knights of St. John. France was to retain a large portion of Holland, German territory as far as the Rhine, Savoy, Geneva, Nice, and other "plums."

J. Lange.

NAPOLEON BONAPARTE.

Almost immediately after this, Napoleon was made First Consul for life, with the right of naming his successor. And with absolute power he had determined, despite the Peace, which was a mere pretext for a truce, to bend all Europe to his will. He proceeded, "while the ink of the Treaty was still wet," to set aside its provisions. He had made his peace with the Pope by the Concordat, and had restored the Roman Catholic Church in France as a religious power. Then he seized Piedmont and Parma, and annexed them to France, and sent his soldiers to occupy Switzerland. As for Great Britain, it was evident that he hated her and meant to crush her, and it was not long before he showed his designs openly.

The echoes of the cheers that welcomed the signing of the Treaty of peace, had hardly died away before his aggressive acts and reckless ambition began to convince the people how hollow the Peace was, and how imminent the renewal of hostilities. Early in 1803 his language grew more insolent and menacing, and besides his personal arrogance, the signs were not lacking of an encroaching and grasping policy. He continued to keep his troops in Holland, contrary to the terms of the Treaty, and in the French and Dutch ports active preparations were going forward in making provision for war.

His first steps were to stir up rebellion in Ireland ; to demand that the French refugees who had taken up their abode in England at the time of the Revolution should be expelled, as they had, it was alleged, libelled him in their London newspaper, *L'Ambigu*, and that Malta, which England had declined to give up owing to the attitude he had

assumed, should be at once surrendered. In view of all this, on the 8th March, the King sent a message to Parliament that "as very considerable preparations were being carried on in the ports of France and Holland, he judged it expedient to adopt additional measures of precaution for the security of his dominions."

Two days later the Commons resolved that an additional number of ten thousand men should be employed for the sea service and that the militia should be called out.

Meanwhile, Lord Whitworth, the British Ambassador at the Tuileries, was faring badly. Napoleon had called him into his presence and insulted him, declaring that England was a violater of treaties and making the insolent boast, "England cannot contend long against France." On the 16th of May, therefore, George III. sent a further message to Parliament announcing his rupture with the French Government and the recall of his ambassador, and two days later his declaration of war against France was laid before Parliament.

The war now declared was to continue, almost without a break, until 1814!

Napoleon accepted the challenge by putting an embargo on English shipping and in taking the most unjustifiable step of making prisoners of war all the English in France and Holland—between ten and twelve thousand British subjects of all classes—who were travelling or living on French soil. Concerning this unprecedented step, which caused additional bitter feeling, the *Annual Register* said :—

"In consequence of orders from the Government, the English confined at Rouen have been conducted to Dourlens, six miles from Amiens. The English that were at Calais when Bonaparte visited that place, have all been sent to Lisle. The English prisoners at Brussels have been ordered to repair to Valenciennes. The great Consul like a politic shepherd, continually removes the pen of his bleating English flock from spot to spot, well knowing that the soil will everywhere be enriched by their temporary residence. How their wool will look when they return from their summer pasture is of little consequence."

But it was of great consequence that for eleven years these unhappy persons were kept in exile from their country.

Napoleon's next step was to stir up insurrection in Ireland by inciting Robert Emmett, brother of Thomas Emmett, the rebel of '98. It ended in a mere riot, during which, however, the Lord Chief Justice Kilwarden, a mild and upright judge, was brutally murdered by the mob. Emmett might have escaped had it not been that he would not leave Ireland until he had once more seen Sarah Curran, the girl he loved. The Irish peasantry would not hide him in his character of a French officer, and he was captured near the residence of his sweetheart, and hanged. His epitaph is written in Moore's beautiful song, "O! breathe not his name."

Napoleon then proceeded to strike a blow at Great Britain in the person of her sovereign, and the surrender of Hanover to the French forces, commanded by General Mortier, greatly affected George III, who had proclaimed that his hostilities with France were entered upon as King of Great Britain and not as Elector of Hanover. Napoleon snapped his fingers at the proclamation and Mortier was in clover, tenanting the palace which the King had recently had repaired and furnished for the Duke of Cambridge at a cost of £50,000.

Then came the climax. Napoleon determined to attack his enemy at home and to put in force his long cherished project of conquering Great Britain by invasion of her shores. Before winter set in one hundred and fifty thousand men were encamped opposite

the coast of Kent and a vast flotilla of gun boats was placed at Boulogne and other ports.

The excitement produced in this country when these facts became known, had not been equalled since the days of the Spanish Armada. It was felt that the struggle was now for national existence and for the preservation of the liberty of all Europe against the despot who had already crushed the liberty of his adopted country and had made himself "master of enlarged France, of Italy, the Low Countries, and Spain—the mediator of Germany, and the ally of Russia."

Britain was not unprepared for attack. Her fleets were more powerful than those of France, and so high ran the spirit of resistance throughout the country that before the close of the year the Volunteer and Yeomanry Corps, independent of the regular army, were numbered at three hundred and eighty thousand. The country rose as one man to resist the invader, and when, in October, a great review was held in Hyde Park before the King, his seven sons, the queen, princesses, and two hundred thousand spectators, enthusiasm reached its highest point.

High and low, arrangements were made for personal safety in the event of the threatened invasion taking place. "Should Bonaparte's troops effect a landing," wrote the King to his friend the Bishop of Worcester, "I shall certainly put myself at the head of mine and my other armed subjects, to repel them; but as it is impossible to foresee the events of such a conflict, should the enemy approach too near to Windsor I shall think it right the queen and my daughters should cross the Severn, and shall send them to your Episcopal palace at Worcester."

Everywhere there was feverish excitement; the Prince of Wales pleaded to be placed in some high and responsible military command; every man of pluck—and that meant the whole country—was willing to serve in any capacity that should aid the general weal, and the land was sown broadcast with handbills and leaflets stirring up the people into patriotic enthusiasm.

Invasion scares, invasion squibs, invasion songs, were the order of the day. Here is a snatch of a song set to the tune of the "Blue Bells of Scotland."

When, and O when, does this little Bony come?
Perhaps he'll come in August; perhaps he'll stay at home;
But its O in my heart, how I'll hide him should he come!
Where, and O where, does this little Boney dwell?
His birth-place is in Corsica, but France he loves so well;
But its O the poor French, how they crouch beneath his spell.
Yet still he boldly brags, with a consequence full cramm'd,
On England's happy island his legions he will land;
But its O in my heart, if he does may I be d——d.

and so on.

Every city merchant subscribed to the Patriotic Fund. Pickford & Co. offered for the service of the Government four hundred horses, fifty waggons, and twenty-eight boats; thousands upon thousands of horses and carriages were offered for the disposal of the Executive; local defence was organised, and martello towers were reared; beacons were placed all round the coast, with tar barrels to light at night, and damp straw, for the sake of the smoke, by day. Provision was made for the incarceration of the French prisoners in England who might have acted as spies.

No one seemed to be able to find names bad enough to describe the invader. He was the Corsican Ogre, the Man of Sin, the Beast of the Apocalypse, the Bogey of the Nursery. "If you are naughty, Boney will come to you!" or, "Boney will eat you up!"

was the threat of every nurserymaid. When Thackeray was a small boy he was coming from India to England, years after the threatened invasion, and the ship touched at an island where his black servant took him for a walk over rocks and hills, until they reached a garden, where they saw a man walking. "That is he," said the blackman, "that is Boney! He eats three sheep every day, and all the little children he can lay hands on." "There were people in the British dominions, besides that poor Calcutta serving man, with an equal horror of the Corsican Ogre," said Thackeray, who told the story in one of his lectures.

Along the coast each town and village felt certain that the descent of the invader would be immediately opposite its own doors, and stories are told of horses being kept ready harnessed, and waggons packed with household goods, ready for flight the moment

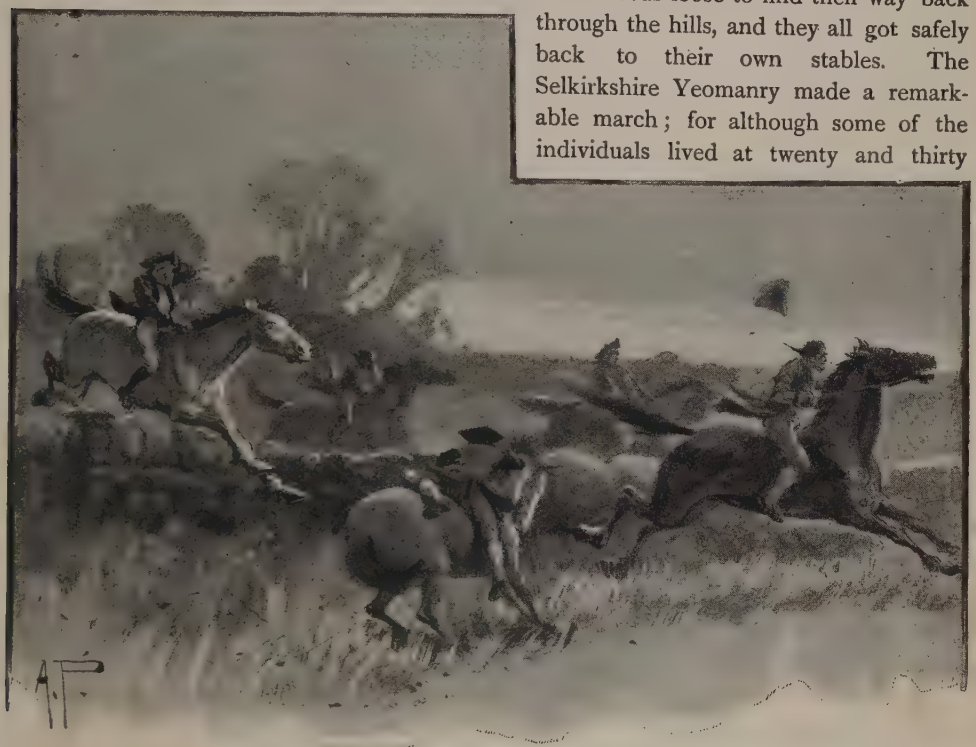
MARTELLO TOWER, ST. BRELADE'S BAY, JERSEY. *Stuart, Photo.*

the fleet should be descried. Napoleon's flat-bottomed boats, for conveying his soldiers across the Channel, were expected every day and every hour, and were often *seen*—in the excited imagination of nervous persons. All along the coast the terror spread. In the Isle of Wight, though guarded by shipping, the inhabitants were afraid to go to bed, and provision was made for carrying away women and children on the first appearance of the terrifying flotilla. Pikes were sent to arm the men, orders were given respecting signals of the enemies approach, and farmers were directed to burn their corn as soon as the French neared our shores. In Essex, like terror prevailed. Lawyers' clerks were drilled at Colchester, schools were broken up, property was concealed under flower beds, and women and children ran about the streets shrieking as if they were mad. And this state of things occurred at intervals for about a year.

One incident, illustrating the spirit of the people at this period, may be cited here. One evening, in January, 1804, a beacon was lighted by mistake at Hume Castle, in Berwickshire. Naturally enough, other beacons immediately followed the example of lighting up, and the consequence was that the volunteers throughout nearly all the southern counties of Scotland were in arms before next morning, and pouring fast to

their respective places of rendezvous. Sir Walter Scott, who was witness to some of these proceedings, gives an account of the devoted patriotism of the people.

"The men of Liddesdale," he says, "the most remote point to the westward which the alarm reached, were so much afraid of being late in the field that they put in requisition all the horses they could find, and when they had thus made a forced march out of their own county they turned their borrowed steeds loose to find their way back through the hills, and they all got safely back to their own stables. The Selkirkshire Yeomanry made a remarkable march; for although some of the individuals lived at twenty and thirty



"THEY PUT INTO REQUISITION ALL THE HORSES THEY COULD FIND."

miles distance from the place where they mustered, they were, nevertheless, embodied and in order in so short a period that they were at Dalkeith, which was their alarm post, about one o'clock on the day succeeding the first signal, with men and horses in good order, though the roads were in a bad state, and many of the troopers must have ridden forty or fifty miles without drawing bridle."

"Fifteen millions of people," said Napoleon, boastfully, when comparing the populations of England and France, "must give way to forty millions." But he had not reckoned upon the spirit of the men of the tight little Island who, in their turn, boasted that "one Englishman was more than a match for three Frenchmen."

Pitt, "the pilot who weathered the storm," returned to power in May, 1804, and, in the same month, Napoleon assumed the title of Emperor of the French. On January 2nd, 1805, he wrote to George III. in these terms:—

"Sir and Brother,

Called to the throne of France by Providence and by the suffrages of the Senate, the People, and the Army, my first sentiment is a wish for peace. France and England abuse their prosperity. They may contend for ages; but do their Governments well fulfil the most sacred of their duties, and will not so much blood, shed uselessly and

without a view to any end, condemn them in their own consciences? I consider it no disgrace to make the first step. I have, I hope, sufficiently proved to the world that I fear none of the chances of war; it, besides, presents nothing that I need to fear; peace is the wish of my heart, but war has never been inconsistent with my glory. I conjure your Majesty not to deny yourself the happiness of giving peace to the world, nor to leave that sweet satisfaction to your children, for certainly, there never was a more fortunate opportunity, nor a moment more favourable, to silence all the passions and listen only to the sentiments of humanity and reason. This moment once lost, what end can be assigned to a war which all my efforts will not be able to terminate? Your Majesty has gained within the last ten years, both in territory and riches, more than the whole extent of Europe. Your nation is at the highest point of prosperity; to what can it hope from war? To form a coalition with some powers on the Continent? The Continent will remain tranquil—a coalition can only increase the preponderance and Continental greatness of France. To renew intestine troubles? The times are no longer the same. To destroy our finances? Finances founded on flourishing agriculture can never be destroyed. To take from France her colonies? The colonies are to France only a secondary object; and does not your Majesty already possess more than you know how to preserve? If your Majesty would but reflect you must perceive that the war is without an object, without any presumable result to yourself. Alas! what a melancholy prospect to cause two nations to fight merely for the sake of fighting! The world has sufficient room for our two nations to live in it, and reason is sufficiently powerful to discover means of reconciling everything when the wish for reconciliation exists on both sides. I have, however, fulfilled a sacred duty, and one which is precious to my heart. I trust your Majesty will believe in the sincerity of my sentiments, and my wish to give you every proof of it. NAPOLEON."

His Majesty did *not* believe in the sincerity of the sentiments of the Emperor, and in the reply—sent by Lord Mulgrave, then Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs, to M. Tallyrand—he stated that "Peace can only be attained by arrangements which may, at the same time, provide for the future safety and tranquility of Europe, and prevent a recurrence of the dangers and calamities in which it is involved."

As England, with her powerful fleet, held command of the Channel, with Nelson afloat within easy reach, it was hopeless for the French to attempt a crossing. It was in vain that Napoleon, with the aid of the Spanish, who had joined him in alliance, brought together an enormous fleet of sixty ships of the line—he dared not challenge a sea fight. His policy, therefore, became strategic, and he sought to decoy Nelson into distant waters, so that his troops might make the invasion of England without obstruction. He sent his own fleet to the West Indies, with secret instructions to return immediately to Europe. Nelson gave chase and followed across the Atlantic with ten ships, only to find, to his bitter disappointment, that the enemy were doubling back to their starting place. The moment he discovered this, he dispatched his swiftest ship to England to announce his failure, and to intimate the pressing danger.

A fleet of fifteen line-of-battle ships was at once sent, under Sir Robert Calder, to meet the returning allies. A great battle, of four hours' duration, was fought off Cape Finisterre, on July 22nd, 1805, with fifteen against twenty seven ships; Villeneuve, the French Admiral, was driven, with a shattered fleet, to Ferrol, and finally to Cadiz, where he was blockaded by Admiral Collingwood. It was the biter bit. Napoleon was ready to make his descent on our shores, but his plans were spoiled by the absence of his fleet,

and, enraged to fury, he saw that he had been outwitted, and that his scheme of invasion was spoiled for ever!

The year 1805 was fuller of incident than almost any year in the century. In March, Napoleon was invited by the Italian Republic to be its monarch; in April, he and Josephine left Paris for Milan, and on the 23rd of May he crowned himself King of Italy. With his own hands he placed the ancient Iron Crown of Lombardy on his head, saying "God has given it to me; let him beware who would touch it," thus assuming the haughty motto attached to the antique diadem by its early possessors.* After his coronation, Napoleon instituted a new order of knighthood for Italy, named the "Iron Crown," on the same principle as the Legion of Honor for France.

Notwithstanding Napoleon's crafty and boastful words to King George: "What can your nation hope from war? To form a coalition with some powers on the Continent? The Continent will remain tranquil. A coalition can only increase the preponderance and Continental greatness of France," Pitt's wise diplomacy triumphed over the jealousies of the Powers; a third coalition was formed, and England, Austria, Russia, and Prussia joined against France. Without an hour's delay, when his scheme of invasion was baffled, Napoleon withdrew the great "Army of England," as he had called the forces collected at Boulogne, and marched his one hundred and fifty thousand men to the Rhine, to enter upon the most brilliant successes of his wonderful career.

Meanwhile, Nelson was on the seas in chase of Villeneuve, the French admiral.

On the 15th September, Nelson sailed from Portsmouth, amid ringing cheers as the crowd pressed forward to obtain a last look at their hero, and on the 21st of October the fleets met off Cape Trafalgar. The English Fleet consisted of twenty-seven ships of the line as against thirty-three of the French and Spaniards. The latter had four thousand troops on board, and the best riflemen who could be procured, many of them Tyrolese, were dispersed through the ships. Soon after daylight, Nelson came on deck and signal was made to bear down upon the enemy in two lines; Collingwood, in the "Royal Sovereign," led the lee line of thirteen ships, and Nelson, in the "Victory," led the weather line of fourteen ships. Having looked round and seen that everything was ship-shape, Nelson retired to his cabin and wrote this prayer:—

"May the Great God, whom I worship, grant to my country, and for the benefit of Europe in general, a great and glorious victory; and may no misconduct in any one tarnish it; and may humanity after victory be the predominant feature in the British fleet! For myself, individually, I commit my life to Him that made me, and may His blessing alight on my endeavours for serving my country faithfully. To Him I resign myself, and the just cause which is entrusted to me to defend. Amen, amen, amen."

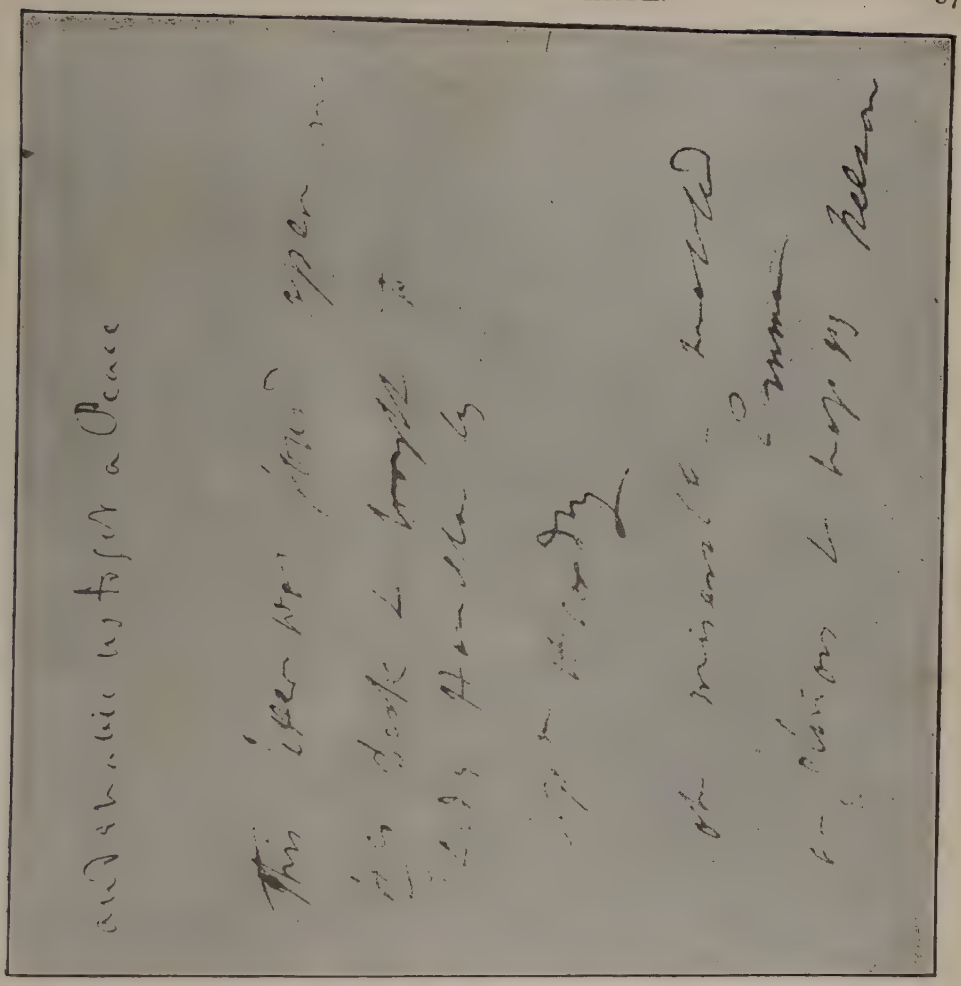
Nelson's plan was to divide his fleet into two squadrons and break the enemy's line in two places at once. The superior tactics of the English made it quite possible to effect this, though Villeneuve's skilful change of front prevented Nelson from cutting off his retreat to Cadiz.

From the first Nelson felt confident of a triumphant issue, and asked Captain Blackwood what he should consider as a victory. Blackwood replied that he thought it would be a glorious result if fourteen ships were captured; to which Nelson answered,

* This wonderful crown composed of a broad circle of gold set with rubies, emeralds, and sapphires, on a ground of blue and gold enamel, derives its name from a narrow band of iron about three-eighths of an inch broad, and one-tenth of an inch in thickness attached to its inner circumference, which is said to have been made out of one of the nails used at the Crucifixion, given by the Empress Helena, the alleged discoverer of the Cross, to her son Constantine as a miraculous protection from dangers of the battle field. It has been regarded by the ecclesiastics who exhibit it as a permanent miracle, inasmuch as the iron, it is said, has never contracted a particle of rust, though it has been exposed for more than fifteen hundred years.

Victory Octr. 19th 1805
Noon Cadiz SE 16 Leagues

My Dearest beloved Emma the dear friend of my bosom the Signal has been made that the Enemys combined fleet are coming out of Port, We have very little Wind so that I have no hopes of seeing them before tomorrow May the God of Battles crown my endeavours with success at all events I will take care that my name shall ever be most dear to you and Horatia both of whom I love as much as my own life, and as my last writing before the battle will be to you so I hope in God that I shall live to finish my Letter after the Battle, may heaven bless you prays your Nelson Nelson & Bronte. Octr. 20th in the morning we were close to the mouth of the Straights but the Wind had not come far enough to the Westward to allow the Combined fleets to weather the Shoals of Trafalgar but they were counted as far as forty Sail of Ships of War which Number the 34 of the Line and Six frigates, a group of them was seen off the Lighthouse of Cadiz this morning but it blows so very fresh I think it probable that I rather believe they will go into the Harbour before night, May God Almighty give us success over these fellows



"I shall not be satisfied with less than twenty." Soon afterwards he asked him if he did not think there was a signal wanting, and Blackwood replied that he thought the whole fleet seemed very clearly to understand what they were about. These words were scarcely spoken before that signal was made, which will be remembered as long as the language, or even the memory, of England shall endure—Nelson's last signal: "England expects every man to do his duty!" It was received throughout the fleet with a shout of answering acclamation, made sublime by the spirit which it breathed and the feeling which it expressed. "Now," said Lord Nelson, "I can do no more. We must trust to the Great Disposer of all events, and the justice of our cause. I thank God for this great opportunity of doing my duty." *

The details of the battle have been so often given that we need not repeat them here except in the briefest summary.

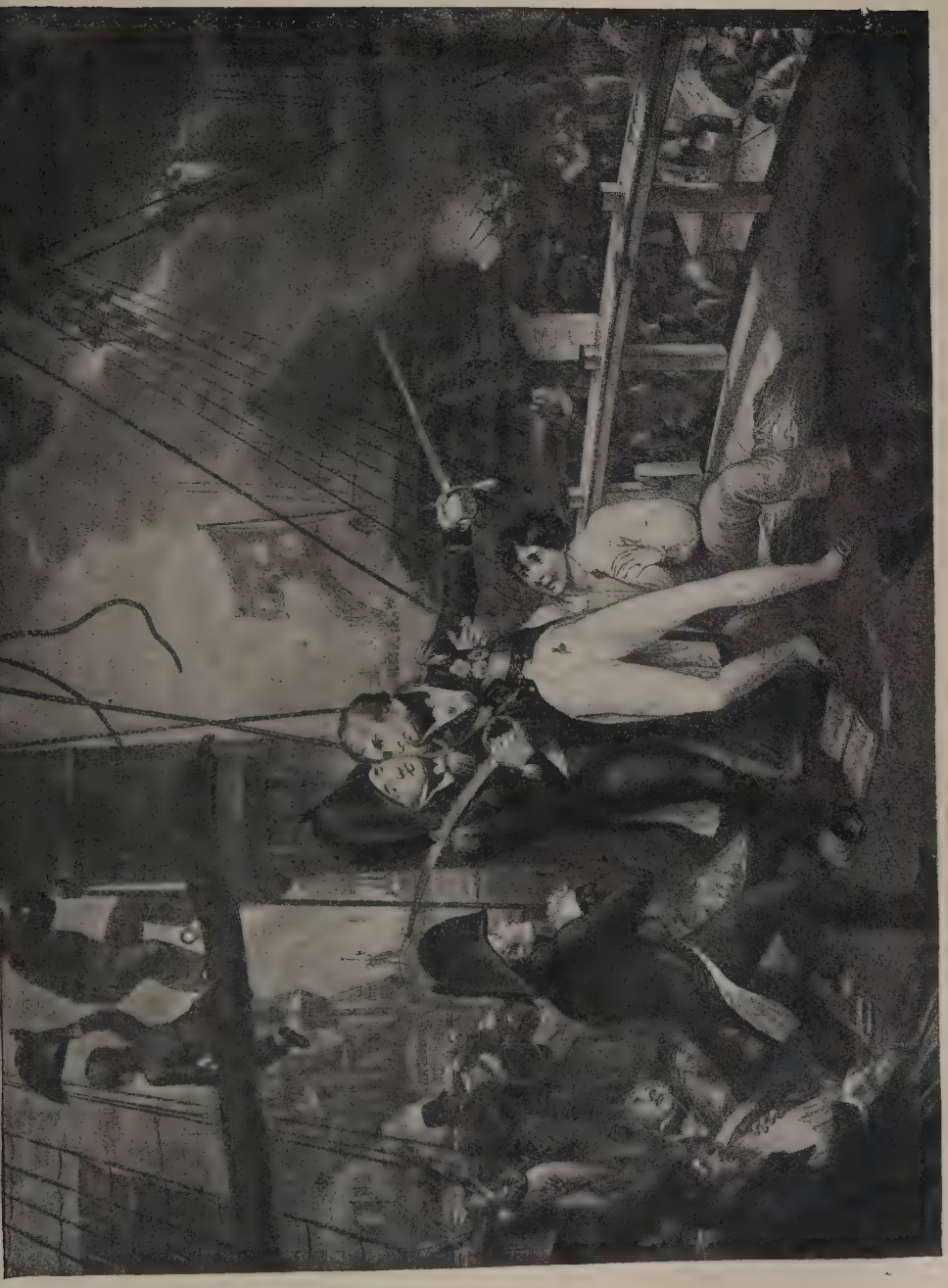
Both lines got to close quarters, and a deadly struggle between ships, almost interlocking each other, broke out. This was the course Nelson had wished the battle might take. When writing to Collingwood and sketching out as nearly as possible a plan of action, he said "I have no fear of the result, should the enemy close. No captain can do wrong if he places his ship alongside that of an enemy."

* Much of this account is based on Southey's "Life of Nelson."

From the very first the "Victory" received so raking a fire from all sides that Nelson said to Captain Hardy, "This is too warm work to last long." At that moment fifty of his men were lying dead or wounded, while the "Victory's" mizen-mast and wheel were shot away, and her sails hanging in ribbons. To the terrible cannonading of the enemy, Nelson had not yet returned a shot, having determined to reserve his fire until he should be in the very thick of the fight. It was now seen that it would be impossible to pass through the enemy's line without running on board one of their ships. Captain Hardy informed him of this and asked which he would prefer. Nelson replied, "Take your choice, Hardy, it does not signify much." The master was then ordered to put the helm to port, and the "Victory" ran on board the "Redoubtable" just as her tiller ropes were shot away, the commander of which, Captain Lucas, in a resolute endeavour to block the passage, himself ran the bowsprit into the figure-head of the "Bucentaure," and the two vessels became locked together. Not many minutes later, Captain Harvey, of the "Téméraire," seeing the position of the "Victory" with her two assailants, fell on board the "Redoubtable" on the other side, so that these four ships formed as compact a tier as though moored together, and the manner in which they dealt death and destruction to each other has never been paralleled "When the guns on the lower deck of the 'Victory' were run out, their muzzles came in contact with the sides of the 'Redoubtable, and now was seen an astounding spectacle. Knowing that there was danger of the French ship taking fire, the fireman of each gun on board the British ship stood ready with a bucketful of water to dash into the hole made by the shot of his gun—thus beautifully illustrating Nelson's prayer 'that the British might be distinguished by humanity in victory.' Less considerate than her antagonist, the "Redoubtable" threw hand-grenades from her tops, which, falling on board herself, set her on fire. The flame communicated with the foresail of the "Téméraire," and caught some ropes and canvas on the booms of the "Victory," risking the destruction of all; but by immense exertions the fire was subdued in the British ships, whose crews lent their assistance to extinguish the flames on board the "Redoubtable" by throwing buckets of water upon her chains and forecastle."*

From this ship, the "Redoubtable," which he had thus twice spared, Nelson received his death-blow. Throughout the action he was far too conspicuous a mark for the enemy, and when it was known that there were expert riflemen aboard the enemies' ships, it would have been wise and prudent if he had laid aside the four stars of the different orders with which he had been invested. But Nelson would not hear of it. "In honour I gained them," he said on a former occasion, "and in honour I will die with them." A ball from the mizen-top of the "Redoubtable" struck the epaulette on his left shoulder, and he fell on his face on the deck. Hardy, who was a few steps from him, turning round, saw three men raising him up. "They have done for me at last, Hardy," said he, "my backbone is shot through." Yet, even now, not for a moment losing his presence of mind, he observed, as they were carrying him down the ladder, that the tiller ropes which had been shot away, were not yet replaced, and ordered that new ones should be rove immediately; then, that he might not be seen by the crew, he took out his handkerchief, and covered his face and his stars. He was carried to the cockpit, crowded with wounded and dying men, and it was soon perceived that the wound was mortal. He himself was aware that no human aid could now avail him, and insisted that the surgeon should leave him and attend to those to whom he might be useful. An hour and ten minutes elapsed before Hardy could come to him. They

* "Annals of the Wars of the Nineteenth Century," by the Hon. Sir Edward Cust, D.C.L., etc.



W. M. Craig.

DEATH OF NELSON.

shook hands in silence, Hardy in vain struggling to suppress the feelings of that most painful and yet sublime moment.

At a second visit from Hardy the dying hero was informed that at least fourteen or fifteen of the enemy had been taken. "That's well," cried Nelson, "but I bargained for twenty"—and twenty there were.

The last shots were heard a few minutes before Nelson drew his final breath. The scene at the hour of his death has been made so familiar to us by art that no words are now needed to describe how Hardy stood over him in silence for a moment or two, then knelt again and kissed his forehead. "Who is that," said Nelson, and on being informed, he replied "God bless you, Hardy," and then, in the very article of death, he distinctly uttered the words "Thank God I have done my duty!"

The total British loss in the Battle of Trafalgar amounted to fifteen hundred and eighty-seven. Twenty French and Spanish line of battle ships were taken, besides twenty thousand prisoners, including Villeneuve, the admiral. The latter was carried to England, but was permitted to return to France. He never reached Paris. On his way he was either murdered by order of the implacable Napoleon, who was furious at his loss, or he committed suicide.

The Battle of Trafalgar decided, let us hope for all time, the naval supremacy of England.

"Trafalgar was not only the greatest naval victory; it was the greatest and most momentous victory won either by land or by sea during the whole of the Revolutionary War. No victory, and no series of victories of Napoleon produced the same effect upon Europe. . . . So long as France possessed a navy, Nelson sustained the spirit of England by his victories; his last triumph left England in such a position that no means remained to injure her but those which must result in the ultimate deliverance of Europe."*

When Napoleon had been frustrated in his design to invade England, he departed, as we have said, with his army to the Rhine with the resolve to have his revenge upon Austria. Everything favoured him. Near the valley of the Danube, around the Fortress of Ulm, lay eighty thousand Austrian soldiers, under the command of General Mack, meditating hostile action against France. Napoleon, with an overwhelming force of one hundred and eighty thousand men, divided into seven corps, came upon him before he dreamed of it, and retreat became impossible. Instead, however, of falling back on the Austrian reserves, and attacking one or other of the French corps, Mack scattered his troops around Ulm, and, being beaten on every side, shut himself up with about twenty thousand men in that city. But the French occupied all the heights around, and Mack, whose brain was in as great a confusion as his army, had no resource except to surrender. There were captured, sixty thousand prisoners, two hundred pieces of cannon, and eighty stands of colours, in a campaign of fifteen days.

The surrender of the army at Ulm was followed, on the 13th of November, by the entry of Napoleon into Vienna as victor. On the 2nd of December, by a series of strategic measures of wonderful coolness and cleverness, he drew the combined armies of Austria and Russia into Moravia, and at the great battle of Austerlitz drove them from the field with a loss of twenty-seven thousand, killed and wounded, and twenty thousand prisoners.

The Continent of Europe now lay at Napoleon's feet.

* History of Modern Europe, by C. A. Fyffe, M.A., Vol. I., p. 281.

Let us turn to see how affairs were progressing at home. On the 6th of April Mr. Whitbread, in the House of Commons, brought certain charges against Pitt's friend and colleague, Lord Melville, "for having, while Treasurer of the Navy, connived at a system of peculation on the part of his deputy, Mr. Alexander Trotter, and also of malversation on his own part." On the 8th, a vote of censure was passed, by the casting vote of the Speaker, and next day Lord Melville resigned his appointment of First Lord of the Admiralty. Subsequently his name was ordered to be struck off the list of Privy Councillors, and on the 25th of June the Commons passed a vote for his impeachment for high crimes, and misdemeanours. Lord Malmesbury says "The transactions relative to Lord Melville exceeded in party spirit and savage feeling all that I ever recollect in this country. Admitting his guilt to its full (which I am far from doing) what can be said to the hussas and shouts of the House of Commons upon his

Chelminski.

THE EVE OF AUSTERLITZ.

condemnation, Sir Thomas Mostyn giving a *view hallo* and a 'We've killed the fox!' What would these very men have said to the judges and jury had they behaved thus at the sentence of the most blood-thirsty felon? Disgraceful and un-English."*

Pitt had long been intimately associated with Lord Melville, and his fate at the hands of relentless foes was a matter of deep personal, as well as political, feeling. When the casting vote had been given against Melville by the Speaker, Lord Malmesbury says that he saw Pitt put on the little cocked hat that he was in the habit of wearing when dressed for the evening, and jam it deeply over his forehead, and distinctly saw the tears trickling down his cheeks. Defeats and reverses, enough to break the proudest spirit, embittered him. The complete overthrow of the new Coalition which he had formed against the French, combined with the vexation arising from the impeachment of his friend, Lord Melville, threatened to destroy him. His intellectual vigour and intrepid spirit helped him to bear up, although he could not altogether disguise from the public

* Malmesbury's Diaries, Vol. IV.

eye the decay of his health and the constant anxiety that gnawed at his heart. He had staked everything on a great venture.

"When the news came of Napolen's defeat of the great Austrian army, and the surrender of Ulm, the Minister would give no credit to the rumour; when it was confirmed he tried to bear up but death was in his face. The news of the Battle of Trafalgar, which arrived in a few days, seemed to revive him, and in two days more, when he dined on Lord Mayor's day in the Guildhall, in returning thanks for his health being drunk, he said 'Let us hope that England, having saved herself by her energy, may save Europe by her example!' These were the last words he uttered in public. But Austerlitz soon completed what Ulm had begun, and the peculiar look which Pitt wore after this calamitous event, was described by Wilberforce as the *Austerlitz look.*"

J. Lange.

NAPOLEON BONAPARTE.

On the 9th of January, 1806, Pitt left Bath, where he had been taking the waters for his gout, and returned to his place at Putney Heath — not to Holwood, in Kent, the beautiful suburban retreat he loved so well, that had been sold—and there for weary days lay the great statesman, who, during a period of nineteen years, had wielded power more absolute than had been enjoyed by any British Minister in modern times. There, the Marquess Wellesley, just returned from eight years in India, visited him, but Pitt fainted from the excitement of the interview. On the 23rd, the Bishop of Lincoln apprised him of his immediate danger, and suggested that they should pray and that he should administer the Sacrament. The sufferer had not strength enough left to receive the Sacrament, but acquiesced in the proposal for prayer. "I fear," he said "I have, like too many other men, neglected prayer too much to allow me to hope that it can be very efficacious now; but," and he clasped his hands in an attitude of devotion "I throw myself entirely upon the mercy of God through the merits of Christ!" Then, when his hands were still clasped, he bowed his head while the Bishop offered prayer. And on that same 23rd of January, on the twenty-fifth anniversary of the day on which he had

first taken his seat in the House of Commons, Pitt passed away; his last words being, according to his nephew, Mr. Stanhope, "O, my country, how I love my country" *

"At the age of forty-six" said Sir Walter Farquhar, his Physician, "he died of old age as much as if he had been ninety." On the 22nd of February there was a great public funeral at Westminster Abbey (the cost of which figures in the expenses of the year as £14,698 11s. 6d.), and his grave was made close by the spot where his great father, Lord Chatham, lay. William Wilberforce, who carried the banner before his hearse, has described the ceremony with deep feeling. "As the coffin descended into the earth" he said "the eagle face of Chatham from above seemed to look down with consternation into the dark house which was receiving all that remained of so much power and glory."

On the death of Pitt, Lord Grenville became head of a new Government of Whigs, called "The Ministry of all the Talents," with Charles James Fox as Foreign Secretary. But Fox did not hold his office, or survive his great rival, long. The Government was only formed in February, 1806, and on the 13th September following, he died He was "a man of perfect equanimity, a splendid scholar, a pleasant companion, a fearless friend of liberty, an advocate of the rights of the slave, a splendid speaker and the enemy of no one but himself."

Fox was buried in Westminster Abbey—the funeral being under the direction of his friend Sheridan—and his grave was dug eighteen inches from that of his old opponent, Pitt.

Says Scott—

"The mighty chiefs sleep side by side;
Drop upon Fox's grave a tear
'Twill trickle to his rival's bier."

Of these "mighty chiefs" a writer in the *Annual Register* of the day says:—

"We may pronounce on them, that, as rivals for power and for fame, their equals have not been known in this country, and perhaps in none were there two such statesmen in so regular and equal a contention for pre-eminence. In the advantages of birth and fortune they were equal; in eloquence, dissimilar in their manner, but superior to all their contemporaries; in influence upon the minds of their hearers, equal; in talents and reputation, dividing the nation into two parties of nearly equal strength; in probity above all suspicion; in patriotism, rivals as in all things else."

* This has been disputed by Macaulay and others who think, and the thought is very probable, that he was misunderstood and that what he actually said was, "How I *leave* my country."

WELLESLEY'S HEADQUARTERS THE NIGHT BEFORE THE BATTLE OF VIMIERA.
From a Contemporary Print.

CHAPTER VII.

INDIA AND THE COLONIES.

I. INDIA—THE MAHRATTA WAR.

WHEN good Queen Bess was on the throne (1599) a number of traders anxious to do business in India, as the Portugese and Dutch had done before them, formed themselves into the trading corporation known as the "East India Company," with, at that time, only a small capital and a few ships. In 1600 Queen Elizabeth granted the company a charter, and ten years later they established their first factory at Surat, near Bombay. In 1639 the Rajah of the Carnatic allowed them to found a colony at Fort St. George (Madras), which in a few years became the seat of the first Presidency, or established Government. In 1701 the second Presidency was founded at Calcutta, and in 1708 Bombay was made a third Presidency.

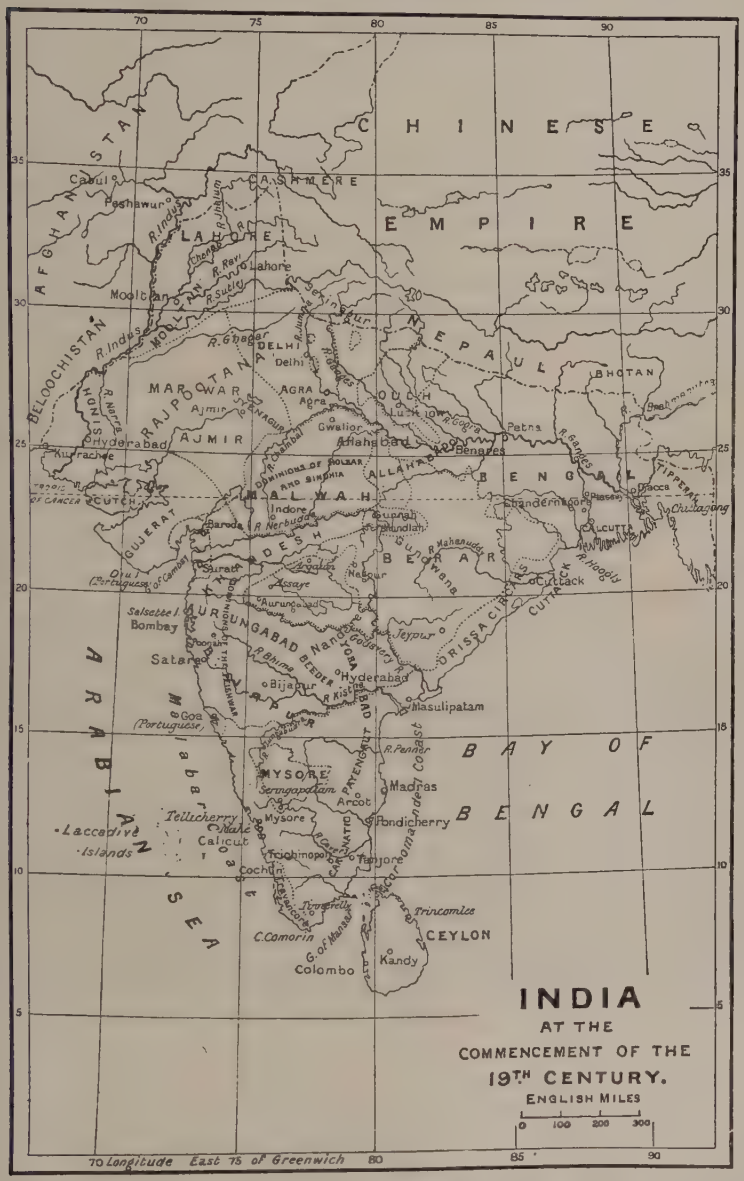
Step by step the East India Company, which at first was merely permitted to trade with the subjects of a great ruling power, became, by a strange series of circumstances, masters of that enormous territory now known as British India. "By a strong and steady perseverance, and assisted at times by fortuitous circumstances, they laid the foundation of an extensive trade, and by taking part in the dissensions of the different races with whom they were brought into contact, soon obtained a political ascendency which enabled them to become the arbiters of the rise and fall of great Asiatic princes. At length, district after district, province after province, and, ultimately, whole kingdoms, fell in succession under their sway, and the result has been the extension of British rule from the Punjāb to Cape Komorin. Never before had a simple trading company attained to such political power as this, and it was the more remarkable, since its Directors had always set their faces against territorial aggrandisement, and had specially desired this rule to be observed by their great officers, the Governors-General of India. How little this was heeded, and how impossible, in fact, it was found to attend to such an injunction, a perusal of the administrations of Warren Hastings, of the Marquesses Cornwallis, Wellesley, Hastings, and Dalhousie, will fully show."*

England had not a monopoly of India in the early days of the company, and the rival European powers there soon came into conflict. Dupleix, the French Governor of Pondicherry—a second Napoleon in ambition and in dreams of conquest—sought to stamp out the British ascendency, and to subdue all India to himself. He drove the English out of Madras, made himself supreme in South India, and ruled over thirty millions of people. He was backed by a victorious French army, and was living in splendour, when a young man of twenty-five, named Robert Clive, a clerk in a merchant's office in Madras, and an ensign in the army, saw that if Trichinopoly, which was threatened, should fall, the English power in India must fall, too.

With four officers and four hundred soldiers he seized Arcot, the capital of the Carnatic, and held out for fifty days against a besieging force of ten thousand natives and a large body of French with their artillery, and repulsed them with great loss.

*Hughes's "History of India."

Victory followed victory until the influence of France was destroyed, Dupleix was recalled in disgrace, and England was supreme in South India.



In 1756 Surajah Dowlah attacked the factory at Calcutta; the horrible tragedy of the Black Hole of Calcutta followed, and Clive avenged it at the great battle of Plassey, where with three thousand two hundred men (one thousand British and two thousand Sepoys, native troops, who derive their name from the Hindu word *sipahi*, or soldier), against an overwhelming force of sixty thousand, he obtained a brilliant victory, gained for England absolute dominion over Bengal, with a population of thirty millions, and laid the foundation of our Indian Empire.

Although in 1761 the Mogul Empire was to all intents and purposes politically extinguished, and the foundation of British supremacy in Hindostan securely laid, there were many attempts by the natives to recover their original position; and the French and English were again brought in conflict in the Carnatic and elsewhere. We cannot follow these events in detail, nor can we give the story of the lives of our great Indian statesmen. Warren Hastings was made first Governor-General of India in 1774; he was succeeded by Lord Cornwallis, who in turn was followed by the Marquess Wellesley (Lord Mornington), whose period of rule ended in 1805. One point, however, it is desirable to make clear before we proceed to tell the story of our progress in India during the Nineteenth Century.

In 1784 Pitt's India Bill made a great change in the Government of British India. By it, the rule of our dominions was left nominally in the hands of the East India Company; but supreme power in civil and military affairs was vested in a body of commissioners called the Board of Control, consisting of six Privy Councillors (nominated by the King), including the Chancellor of the Exchequer and one of the Secretaries of State. The Board was under a President, who was a member of the Ministry. Thus a new Government Department was created, which brought the affairs of India directly within the knowledge of the ruling power at home. Without interfering with the chartered rights of the Company, it kept Indian patronage—such as the Governor-Generalship, the seats in the Council, and a few other posts—in the gift of the King, and so prevented India from being governed by tradesmen for trade purposes. The Board went in and out with the Government; it supervised all despatches to India from the Directors, examining and ratifying their acts, and took into its sole power the management of all matters of war and diplomacy.

THE EAST INDIA HOUSE, LEADENHALL STREET.

For more than seventy years (until 1858) the powers of this India Board continued.

When the century opened there were interspersed among the three Presidencies of Bengal, Madras, and Bombay, and to a great extent surrounding them, many native states; Nepal, the country of the Sikhs, the Kingdom of Oude, the Mahratta Principalities, including those of Holkah, Scindia and the Peishwa; the Deccan, of which the Nizam was at the head; Bundelcund, Nagpore, Cuttack, Mysore and Travancore. All these, originally portions of the great Mohamedan Empire, or else, like the Mahrattas and the Sikhs, tributaries to the Mogul, had in the course of the previous century and a half thrown off their allegiance, and, some without foreign aid, others with such assistance as the English and French factories could supply, succeeded in establishing their independence.*

* G. R. Gleig, M.A.

In 1802, the Mahrattas, who still remained in formidable strength, were the cause of much anxiety, and a new war with them seemed inevitable. They held a wide tract of country, extending from sea to sea, between the Island of Salsette and the mouths of the Ganges, overlapping the Company's territories and stretching northward as far as the Sutlej. By the death of Madhaji Sindhia, who had built up a large kingdom in Central India, the Mahratta power received a great blow, and the chiefs became at strife with one another. These chiefs were the Peishwa, nominally the head of the Confederacy, who held his court at Poonah and was regarded as the greatest man of the Mahrattas; next was Bhoonsla, the Rajah of Berar, or Nagpore; Holkar, the mighty soldier, whose force numbered eighty thousand men; and Scindia, a warrior of even more renown than Holkar.

When war among these chiefs—known as the Mahratta war—broke out, the Marquess Wellesley was Governor-General of India, and his younger brother, Arthur, afterwards the famous Duke of Wellington, was in the field ready for action. It was the policy of the Governor-General to use every occasion on which the British were compelled to interfere with an Indian state—either for self-defence, or putting an end to exterminating wars—to render such a state subsidiary to us, while preserving its native rulers, religion, and customs. His brother Arthur, at that time General Wellesley, had distinguished himself in a subordinate position in the Mysore war, and was now to come into conflict with the Mahrattas, whose movements he had been carefully watching.

When the chiefs became divided among themselves by internal factions, the French took advantage of the position by encouraging them to combine against the British, and, war being inevitable, Arthur Wellesley was made Commander of a Southern army, twenty-three thousand strong, to establish order in the Deccan, while General Lake, at the head of fourteen thousand men, was to march upon Delhi. Both Generals were brilliantly successful. On the 23rd of September, 1803, Wellesley, with only four thousand eight hundred men, defeated the Mahrattas, who numbered thirty thousand men, and a numerous artillery commanded by French officers. "It was the bloodiest battle for the numbers," said Wellesley, "that I ever saw." This splendid victory at Assaye was followed, a few months later, by the total defeat of Scindia, at Argaum, north-east of Assaye.

Meanwhile, in Northern India, General Lake, who had opposed to him a mass of Scindia's European-trained troops, captured the great fortress of Agra, won the famous battle at Laswaree, stormed Aligarh, and, victoriously marching on, took Delhi, the capital of Hindostan and the residence of Shah Alum, the last Emperor of the Mogul line, who, infirm, old and blind, was set free from his long dependence on the Mahrattas, and restored as ruler under British protection. By this act the British acquired the favour of the whole Mohammedan interests in India. The result of the war was that Scindia and Bhoonsla submitted to subsidiary treaties, dismissed their French officers, and gave up enormous tracts of territory. Scindia yielded all his land north of the Jumna to Shah Alum; the Bhoonsla gave up the land he possessed in Orissa to the English; the Peishwa was restored as an English vassal to Poonah, while in the north, Delhi, Agra, and other provinces, were added to our Empire, and French influence in India was finally abolished. Notwithstanding that, Holkar continued for two years longer to uphold the cause of the Mahrattas, and drove away, in 1805, the hitherto successful General Lake from the siege of Bhurtpore.

About this time the policy of the Governor-General's subsidiary system was causing a great outcry in England. The Directors of the East India Company, and the

malcontents who had impeached Warren Hastings, were alarmed at so many States being placed under English rule. It had always been the wish of the Company to abstain from war, and, although brilliant victories had attended our armies, they were terrified at the probable cost of such proceedings. The Marquess Wellesley's policy had been "to make Britain feared for her strength, as well as trusted for her integrity and wisdom, and his earliest care was to augment his army. . . . During the seven years of his administration he subdued four powerful states, whose chiefs had

CAPTURE OF THE MAHRATTA GUNS AT ASSAYE BY THE HIGHLANDERS.

opposed themselves to British supremacy. He subjected to our rule provinces larger than France. He established a predominating influence over many princes, whose thrones, as yet, he spared. He increased the revenue from seven to fifteen millions sterling At the close of his governorship he bore rule over a population of seventy-five millions. All this had been accomplished by forces which never exceeded twenty-thousand British troops, supplemented by three or four times that number of Indian

auxiliaries."* His administration, in fact, changed the whole face of affairs, giving a new character to British power in India which thus became paramount to every other. He was succeeded by Lord Cornwallis, whose administration only lasted for a few weeks. Then followed Sir George Barlow, a person of no consequence. From 1807 to 1813 Lord Minto, a man of skill and courage, though circumscribed in his progress by the Governmental policy of non-intervention, was successful in placing us on a more friendly footing with the Sikhs in the north-west of India, with Cabul and with Persia, and on the renewal of the Company's charter, in 1813, the trade to India was thrown open. From 1814 to 1823 the Governor-General was the Marquess of Hastings, the personal friend of the Prince Regent. Under his rule the fiercest struggle was carried on with the Ghoorkas of Nepal, wild, mountain tribes, who had long harrassed us with regard to our Northern frontier, ending in their ceding to the British enormous tracts of hill-country, amounting to twelve thousand square miles. Two years later the Pindarees in Central India joined some of the Mahratta Chiefs, and after a series of wars the great chief Holkar was finally subdued, and peace and sound government were established in the regions so long devasted by the Pindarees and Mahrattas.

The Confederacy of the latter came to a final end in 1818, and Scindia, Holkar, the Guicowar of Baroda, and the Rajah Kalapore became dependent princes under British protection.

After the Mahratta War there came a period of leisure, giving time to look into the condition of our domestic administration, and to bring into some kind of order the great provinces which had been recently acquired. "The investigation of land tenures, the institution of an elementary police, the first serious attempts to check the brigandage prevailing in our districts, the arrangement and supervision of the local Courts of Justice, took substantial form at the beginning of the century; the roots of that immense system of organised government which has since spread all over India were planted at this season of comparative tranquility. The first five years of the nineteenth century were occupied with continuous wars, with great territorial changes, with the removal of landmarks, and the re-arrangement of rulerships. But from that time forward the country under British jurisdiction has experienced immunity from foreign invasion, or serious violation of its frontier, and even (except in 1857) from internal commotions. It may be questioned whether any State in Asia, or even in Europe, has enjoyed during the same period such complete political tranquility." †

II. THE COLONIES—1800-1815.

NEW SOUTH WALES.

In August, 1768, Captain James Cook started on his famous voyage, under the auspices of the Royal Society, in order to observe the transit of Venus over the sun's disc from the south seas; and in the "Endeavour," a little barque of 370 tons, accompanied by Mr. Green, an astronomer; Sir Joseph Banks and Dr. Solander, botanists, he accomplished his object at Tahiti. Then Cook steered south, and began his splendid series of discoveries. He proceeded to the Bay of Tauranga, in New Zealand, sailed along the coast, hoisted the British flag in Mercury Bay, and subsequently circumnavigated the islands, finding the natives hostile at every place. A few weeks later (1770) he cast anchor on the south east coast of Australia, where the two

*R. Mackenzie, "The Nineteenth Century," p. 228.

† "Rise of British Dominions in India," by Sir Alfred Lyall, K.C.B., D.C.L

naturalists found so many flowers that they named the place Botany Bay. Here again the natives were unfriendly, intercourse with them was impossible, and Cook returned, through Torres Straits, to England. He made other voyages, and, following his example, two Frenchmen, Marion du Fresne and De Surville, sailed to Tasmania and New Zealand, but without much success.

CAPTAIN COOK.

In 1786, when, as we have seen, crime was rampant in England, and our American Colonies were lost to us as a field for transportation of criminals, proposals were made by Lord Sydney, of the Home Office, that New South Wales should be utilised for the purpose, and Captain Arthur Phillip, a man of great ability, who had seen much service, was selected to be first Governor of the Colony. With a little fleet of nine vessels he reached Botany Bay, and landed the whole of the "First fleet" (consisting of one thousand and thirty persons). His next step was to remove the "settlement" to Sydney, on the shores of Port Jackson, and on the 26th of January, 1788, he formally founded the Colony, only eight days after his arrival in Botany Bay. The first Australian Governor in point of time, he has been regarded as the first in point of character and ability, and his

five years of pioneer work in the Colony were in all respects beneficial. His health gave way under the strain, and he returned to England, where he died in 1814.

In the first year of the century, Phillip Gidley King, who had gone out with the "First fleet," was Governor, and his position was a trying one. Although the population was only seven thousand five hundred persons, of whom three thousand three hundred

were women and children, there was a terrible craze for drink, and he was bold enough to prevent shippers from landing 100,777 gallons of spirits and wine, and thus brought upon himself the whips and cords of the whole drinking community. He was a humane man, and strove to rescue the young people from lives of shame and degradation by establishing the Female Orphan Institution. During his term of office the population increased by leaps and bounds; political prisoners, among them being those who had taken part in the Irish Rebellion, were sent there; privateers discharged their prizes on the coast, and rumours were current that the French intended to take possession of the Colony and set the convicts free. These circumstances produced much uneasiness; rumours of insurrection were in the air, and an Armed Association of free settlers was enrolled. A revolt of the convicts ensued, but it was put down with such firmness and severity that order was restored and maintained, although at the expense of the Governor's health, who could not stand the wear and tear, and returned to England in 1806.

His successor, Captain William Bligh, of the "Bounty," arrived in troublesome times, when a wicked plot was brewing among the convicts to take his life and the lives of the leading men, and seize the Colony, with a view to gaining their liberty; but the plot was happily discovered and crushed. Bligh was not the man to rule in turbulent times; he quarrelled with everybody and had not learned the art of governing himself, and the severity of his measures caused him to be arrested by order of the civil and military officers of the Colony, and Major Johnson, Commander of the New South Wales Corps, temporarily assumed the reins of government. Bligh was white-washed by the British Government, and those who were instrumental in his arrest were punished.

Then came a brighter period. Colonel Lachlan Macquarie was selected as Governor, and arrived with a detachment of his regiment in the "Hindostan," a 50-gun frigate, in December, 1809. He successfully administered the affairs of the Colony until December, 1821. When he first took the reins of government the state of the country was very much on the decline, famine was impending, discord and strong party feeling prevailed, and the inhabitants generally were exceedingly poor. There were very few roads and bridges as means of communication, and what there were, were in a wretched condition, while commerce and credit were at a very low ebb. When he left the country, trade and commerce had revived, and credit had been restored; a great number of useful and substantial buildings had been erected, good roads and bridges constructed, and the people were comparatively opulent and happy.* One of his great services was the encouragement he gave to exploration. In 1813, William Charles Wentworth, a youth of twenty-two, Lieutenant Lawson, and Mr. Gregory Blaxland, all being engaged in agricultural pursuits, had been sufferers from a severe drought, and were anxious to penetrate the barrier of the Blue Mountains that hemmed them in, in search of new pastures. They started off in company, and having crossed the Nepean, they struck out through the bush until they reached a point that had been touched by Mr. Bass in his expedition of 1796. Then they went forward, through country "where foot of man had ne'er or rarely been," and after encountering many difficulties and dangers, at last discovered a pass through the mountains. It was a splendid achievement; they marked out a well-defined track over what had been regarded as an impassable barrier, and opened for their countrymen a way to new settlements of incalculable resources. When they reached their farthest point, they were all suffering severely from dysentery; their provisions were exhausted; their clothes only hung together by mere threads, and their boots were so worn that they had to be tied, like sandals, to their feet. But they

* J. Henniker Heaton, "Australian Dictionary of Dates."

had seen the land of promise, and on their return the Deputy Surveyor-General, Mr. G. W. Evans, was sent out by the Governor to follow up the investigations they had made. He discovered the first Australian inland river, which he named the Macquarie in honour of the Governor. These two expeditions were of enormous value; the land seen by Wentworth and his party beyond the barrier, was the famous Bathurst Plains, to which a road was made and opened in January, 1815. Water was the great desideratum in the Colony, and this was also found, and not long afterwards Evans, resuming his

"THEY HAD SEEN THE LAND OF PROMISE."

explorations, came across another river, which he named the Lachlan. The course of the Macquarie and the Lachlan, was a problem awaiting solution.

Inspired by the success of Wentworth, a young fellow of seventeen named Hamilton Hume, who had been born in the country, set forth, with his brother and a black boy, to see what could be done for the further interests of the Colony, and in August, 1814, he

discovered the country around what was afterwards known as Berrima and Bong Bong. Three years later, in company with Surveyor Meehan, he came upon the upper portion of the Shoalhaven River, Lake Bathurst, and the Goulburn Plains.

Between 1814 (when the name "Australia" was first given to the land by Flinders) and 1820, enormous tracts of country were opened up, and fresh explorations were being constantly made. We can only refer at the present time to one of these. Mr. John Oxley, the Surveyor-General of New South Wales, accompanied by Mr. Evans, Mr Allan Cunningham, the King's botanist, Charles Fraser, Colonial botanist, William Parr, mineralogist, and eight men, left Sydney, equipped for five months, for the purpose of tracing the course of the Lachlan. This they did for a length of five hundred miles, and explored the Macquarie as far as to the marshes. On their return journey they took an oblique course and crossed some splendid country with several fine rapid streams running north-east, which they named the Elizabeth River, Mary River, Molle Rivulet, and Bell's River. During the journey Oxley was twice on the point of discovering the Murrumbidgee, but failed. The opinion at which he arrived was that the interior of the country was a marsh and uninhabitable. In a further journey, made in the following year, Oxley discovered eight other rivers, and traversed the whole of the country between Mount Harris and Port Macquarie.

During the period of which we have been writing there were many troubles with the natives, and some attempts were made for their civilization. But the native question was not the burning one of the time. The great difficulty with which the Colonists had to contend was, what was to become of the convicts whose time of servitude had expired, or who had been pardoned? The policy of Governor Macquarie was to endeavour to remove the stigma of convictism from them, and give them a place in the social life of the Colony, with a view to their reformation. It was an extremely difficult problem to solve, and Macquarie was not the one to solve it. He left the Colony in 1822 with the satisfaction of knowing that he had been the means of greatly improving it, and that it had grown in wealth, population, and importance; but the great question of Convictism, to which we shall return later on, remained for many years in abeyance.

III. OTHER AUSTRALASIAN COLONIES.

TASMANIA.

VAN DIEMEN'S LAND, as it was called until 1854—when, on an address of the Legislative Council, its name was altered to Tasmania—was discovered by the Dutch navigator, Tasman, in 1642, and was visited by, among others, Captain Cook, Captain Bligh, of the "Bounty," by Bass and Flinders, who discovered the entrance of the river Tamar, explored the coast, and, so early as 1798, proceeded as far as Sullivan's Cove, afterwards called Hobart Town (in honour of Lord Hobart, head of the Colonial Office), where the first settlement was formed in 1803.

King George III. established his right to Van Diemen's Land by proclamation, and as the rumour had got abroad that the French were about to take possession, Lieutenant John Bowen, of H.M.S. "Glatton," was sent thither to form an establishment and himself to assume the title of Commandant and Superintendent. He landed with a surgeon, three soldiers, and ten male and six female prisoners, and they settled at Risdon, on the left bank of the Derwent.

Five months later there arrived at Sullivan's Cove the first detachment of a body of Port Phillip settlers, who had abandoned that place as unfit to live in, and they formed a settlement at Hobart Town under Colonel Collins as Lieutenant-Governor. It was a curious position; two settlements with two distinct governors within eight miles of each other; but matters, which were unsatisfactory at first, were adjusted by Bowen retiring to New South Wales, and Collins taking oversight of the combined settlements.

Within a year Yorktown was settled by a party of prisoners from Sydney (afterwards removed to Launceston). New Norfolk became inhabited by settlers who had abandoned their holdings in Norfolk Island, and additions were made from time to time until, by 1815, easy communication was opened up between Hobart and Launceston, a post office was established, a temporary church built, the first Supreme Court was held in 1814, the Hobart Town Gazette was published in 1816, and by degrees all the paraphernalia of civilized life was roughly set up. As in Sydney, so in Tasmania, the convict system was the curse of the place. The convicts and their guards composed almost the entire population, and the "assignment system," as it was called, namely, an arrangement by which the prisoners had to labour for the free settlers, was soon introduced.

Almost from the first there was trouble with the natives. Before two months had passed there happened one day to be a kangaroo hunt, and a large body of natives in pursuit came up to the camp of the settlers, who, taken unawares, and thinking it was a hostile attack, fired on the wretched blacks, fifty of whom fell victims to the civilizers. From that day forth it was war to the knife between the natives and the settlers, and the horrible story of murder, brutality, and lust, is a dark chapter in early Colonial history.

Notwithstanding this, progress was made; industries were developed, and prosperity was looked forward to with certainty, when a new terror arose. The island was over-run with bushrangers, who caused such havoc and destruction that the proclamation of martial law was threatened. Convicts and soldiers, for the sake of the rewards that were offered for the capture of bushrangers, went forth in pursuit of them, and there were as many exciting and adventurous incidents in the course of a few years as would have furnished "copy" for Rolf Boldrewood for the rest of his natural life. Let one short story suffice:—

THE OLD CONVICT SHIP "SUCCESS."

"Michael Howe, a sailor by profession, was convicted of highway robbery in 1812, and transported to Hobart Town, where the old instinct soon asserted itself and drove him to the bush. He took a leading part in the boldest raids on settlers, but escaped all his would-be captors by the aid of an aboriginal girl, who guided him to hiding-places almost inaccessible to white men. A price was put upon his head, and a party of settlers were eager in pursuit; but when the bushrangers comprising his band were at length overtaken the colonists were defeated, and five of their number killed. This was not, however, sufficient retaliation for Howe's party, who made an attack on the homestead of the leader of the settlers, in the hope of wreaking vengeance. The house in the meantime had been filled with soldiers, and the robbers met with a warmer reception than they had anticipated. Many of the bushrangers were killed, and amongst them Whitehead, one of the leaders of the band. Howe thereupon severed the head from the trunk of Whitehead, and, bearing it with him, successfully fled from the arm of the law. He again formed his band, and, styling himself the "Governor of the Ranges," continued to commit crimes even more atrocious than before.

"But the notoriety gained by Howe caused his capture to be regarded as of the utmost importance, the reward offered being exceptionally high. Worral, a convict, who longed for his liberty, pressed him hard. Flying for life through the rocky mountains, the black girl, worn and sick, lagged behind, and Howe, moved by no feelings of affection or pity for the woman who had followed him so faithfully, turned and shot her, in the hope of preventing all possibility of betrayal, should she be taken by his enemies. In his haste his pistol was ill aimed, and the woman was wounded, but not killed, and henceforth one more was added to Howe's pursuers—one who was the most formidable

of them all, for her motive was revenge, not gain, and all his hiding-places and habits were known to her. Once Howe was captured and bound, but he slipped his bonds and slew his two captors. At last Worral, and a soldier named Pugh, tried artifice, and, concealing themselves in a hut, they persuaded a former friend of Howe's to entice him into it. His enemies sprang out upon him, and a desperate fight began. Howe beat off his assailants, and turned to fly. But if they could not take him alive they were, at any rate, determined that no one else should. Clubbing their muskets, they dashed out the bushranger's brains This story will give some idea of the wild life led by many of the colonists, who slept with loaded firearms by their pillows, ready at any moment to repulse an attack by robbers, who were already so steeped in crime that the taking of a life, more or less, could add nothing to the penalty already earned."*

Eventually, the efforts to put down bushrangers were successful, and the Colony went on its peaceful and progressive way, save for the inhuman conduct of the settlers towards the natives. This difficulty increased as the years went on, until in 1830 Governor Arthur made an extraordinary attempt to settle the question. His idea was to catch all the aboriginal population of the island and pen them up on the narrow neck of land known as Tasman's Peninsula. Upwards of three thousand five hundred white persons, including three hundred soldiers, turned out for the exciting operation of clearing Tasmania by means of a cordon across the island. All seemed to be going well until the line of beaters became contracted, when it was found that the natives were in the rear, instead of in the front! The attempt proved a total failure, only two natives were captured (one man and one boy), and the total cost of the expedition amounted to £35,000.

In 1825, Tasmania was proclaimed independent of New South Wales, and a separate Government was established; the "Van Diemen's Land Company" received a grant of twenty-five thousand acres; population increased, and religious, educational, and commercial institutions were established. The last of the Tasmanian Aboriginals, three hundred in number, were transferred from the mainland to Flinder's Island, by the instrumentality of Mr. George Augustus Robinson, in 1837. In that year the convict population amounted to seventeen thousand five hundred and ninety-three.

The first successful attempt to colonize the territory now known as VICTORIA was not made until 1834, when Mr. Thomas Henty, with a few free settlers, located themselves at Portland Bay, two hundred and thirty-four miles from where Melbourne now stands. The Swan River Settlement in WESTERN AUSTRALIA founded in 1829, proved a disastrous failure at the first, and it was not until nearly fifty years had elapsed that it rose into importance. SOUTH AUSTRALIA was proclaimed a province of the British Crown on the 28th of December, 1836.

At QUEENSLAND the first penal settlement was formed by Lieutenant Miller, in 1824, at Moreton, and remained a portion of NEW SOUTH WALES until 1854, while New Zealand only became an independent colony of Great Britain in 1841.

As these dates are in advance of the period of which we are now writing, we shall reserve any further account of our Australian Colonies until later on.

*"Australian Commonwealth," by Greville Tregarthen.

CHAPTER VIII.

RELIGIOUS PROGRESS.—THE EVANGELICAL MOVEMENT.

1801-1832.

IT is not uncharitable to record the fact that in the beginning of the nineteenth century, the Church of England had not fully emerged from its long sleep, its lethargy and indifference. The bishops were, as a rule, either of noble families, or protégés of men in high places, who cared more for "livings" than for spiritual work, and who, as a class, were indifferent to their duties, lazy, and self-seeking. The parochial clergyman was unfortunately, in instances not rare, the bane of his parish, and Crabbe, the poet, was not guilty of libel when he wrote of him as one

> Who thinks his Sunday task
> As much as God or man can fairly ask ;
> The rest he gives to loves and labours light,
> To fields the morning, and to feasts the night ;
> None better skilled the noisy pack to guide,
> To urge their chase, to cheer them, or to chide ;
> A sportsman keen, he shoots through half the day,
> And, skilled at whist, devotes the night to play.

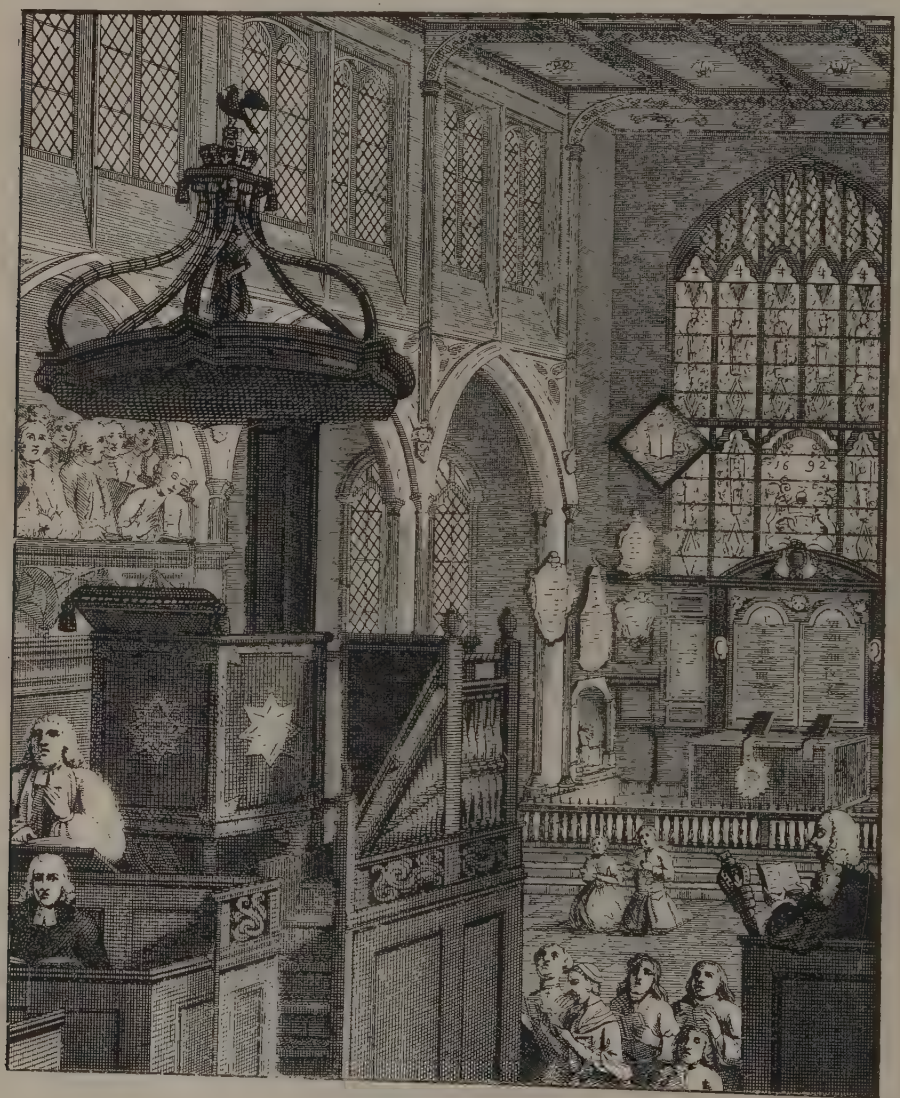
In tracing the progress of the religious life of the century, there is no subject on which the evidence is more abundant, or proof more striking, of rapid and marvellous development. To chronicle this history is a task of no small difficulty ; first, on the ground of certain prejudices which always beset the path of ecclesiastical students, and secondly, because of the abundance of material in proof of the perplexing fact that each section of the church defends its own position as the best.

We wish to give the subject in all its relations, but more particularly as it affects the moral and social position of the community, from a perfectly independent standpoint, and without regard to any sect, party, or theological bias.

Some aspects of political relations to the church may be glanced at first. With the Union of Great Britain and Ireland came the Episcopalian Union of the two countries, constituting one Protestant community to be called the "United Church of England and Ireland," and on and from the 1st of January, 1801, the Prayer Book was amended accordingly, and spiritual independence passed away with that which was political. The change made little difference, however, to the religious interests of either country.

In the stormy days of war, Church and State attached much more importance to Fast Days than now, and at one time they became of such frequent occurrence as to thwart what they were intended to accomplish. Times of great calamity, however, drew the people together in spite of theological divisions, and prayers were framed by the Church Authorities that were used by almost all English Christians. Especially was this the case during Napoleon's threatened invasion. Very militant were the prayers and sermons of those days. The great preacher, Robert Hall, in a sermon which Mr. Pitt considered "equal in eloquence to any passage of the same length that can be selected from either ancient or modern orators," and which won the boundless admiration of Sir James Mackintosh, exclaimed in his peroration, addressing the Most High :—

"Go forth with our hosts in the day of battle! Impart, in addition to their hereditary valour, that confidence of success which springs from Thy Presence! Pour into their hearts the spirit of departed heroes! Inspire them with Thine own; and, while led by Thine hand and fighting under Thy banners, open Thou their eyes to behold in every valley and in every plain what the prophet beheld by the same illumination—chariots of fire and horses of fire!"

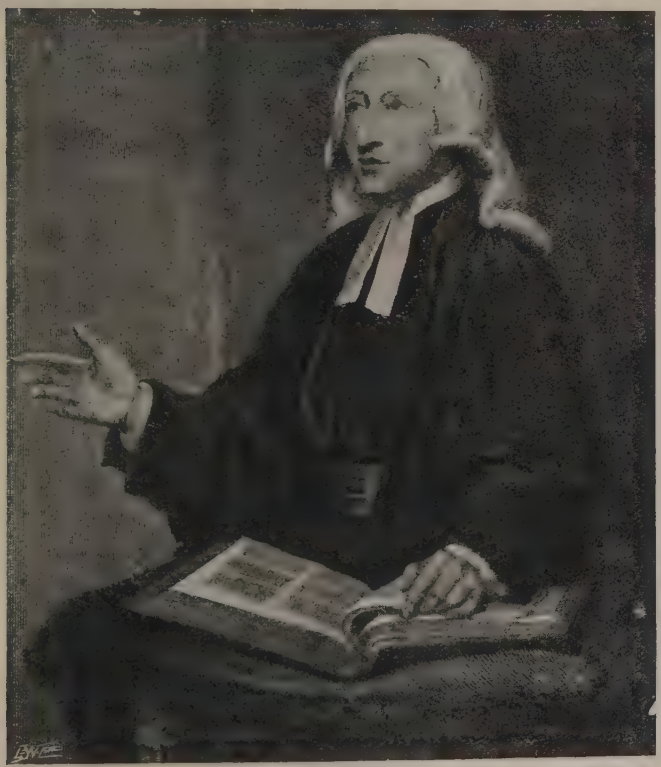


ST. MARGARET'S, WESTMINSTER.
Showing Old Pulpit, the Speaker's Pew, &c., at beginning of the century.

Several Acts of Parliament were passed in the early years of the century relating to the English clergy. Non-residence was so very common, that in 1802 a law was made to enforce proper attention to pastoral duties; but as the Act gave the bishops power to give or withhold licenses not to reside, the chief good of the enactment was to

show that a spirit of reform was feebly making its way. The fact was, that incumbents of churches in important towns who were drawing large salaries, committed their work almost entirely to poor curates who were miserably, and in some cases wickedly, underpaid. Another Act, passed in 1803, was to restrain clerical farming; in other words, to teach clergymen that as they were set apart to a sacred calling they should not engage in agricultural pursuits in the same style and spirit as ordinary farmers, and so merit the rebuke, "that as a body they were secular in their habits, though above the level of general society." It must be remembered in this connection that many of the beneficed clergy were also extremely poor, and were glad therefore of any means of ekeing out their slender livelihood. Between the years 1809-1820 the governors of Queen Anne's Bounty distributed in charity one million sterling for their relief.

During the period of which we write there was great insufficiency in church accommodation and if the people had responded to the appeals from the pulpit to flock to the churches, the buildings would not have held a tithe of them. At first, Parliamentary grants were made, in small sums; but in 1813 a million sterling was voted; half a million more in 1824, together with Exchequer Bill loans to the same amount, and from time to time further grants were made, until in 1828, Charles James Blomfield, Bishop of London, took up the question with great zeal, and with growing population came the needed accommodation for all places and for all classes. Between the years 1801-1831, and more particularly during the latter portion of that period, five hundred churches were built at an expense of three millions of money.*



JOHN WESLEY. *W. Hamilton, R.A.*

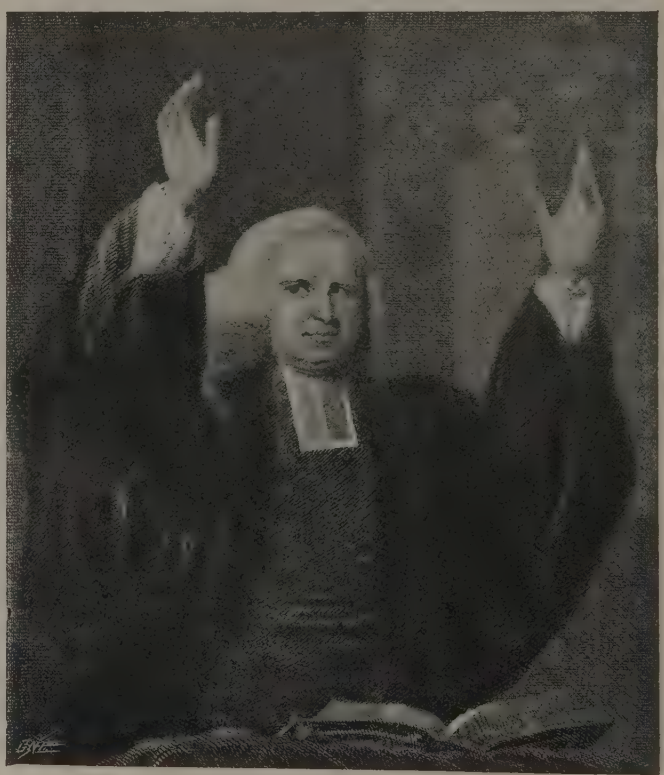
This cry for the erection of churches was largely due to what was called the "Evangelical Party," the most active section, at that time, of the church, of whom were the Venns, Romaines, Topladys, Berridges, Simeons, Grimshaws, Harveys, Scotts, and Newtons of an early day, and Hugh Stowell, Haldane Stuart, Edward Bickersteth, Hugh Mc.Neile, Henry Venn, William Marsh, Alexander Haldane, Lord Shaftesbury, and Webb-Peploe of a later date.

*May's "Constitutional History," Vol. III., p. 215.

Our young people are taught in certain school books in current use that :—

"The 'Evangelical Party,' properly so called, was not very numerous and, as a rule, not very influential throughout the country, though its teaching gave colour to many outside their own body. They were also looked on with great suspicion by orthodox old-fashioned High Churchmen. But they did much good work, and careers like that of Henry Martyn (1781-1812), a missionary to India, showed that Evangelical views could inspire noble self-devotion and unselfish Christian zeal. But they worked too much by themselves to inspire the whole nation with their spirit, for they chiefly aimed at advancing spiritual life in the individual rather than the spiritual development of the Church as an institution, and their peculiar methods were not always attractive to persons of education and culture."

Notwithstanding such opinions as these, it is matter of history that the vast majority of the improvements wrought in the homes and habits of the people, the growth of social legislation, the spread of knowledge, the progress of education, of political reform, of missionary enterprise, of charitable institutions, and of church extension, are mainly due to the untiring and self-denying labours of the early Evangelicals of the Church of England. They were, without doubt, the first to put out their hands to break down the barriers that kept the various bodies of Christians aloof.



GEORGE WHITFIELD.

At this time, too, the great revival of the eighteenth century under the Wesleys and Whitfield, was continuing to make its influence largely felt, and Dissenters as they were commonly called, or Nonconformists as they are now called, or Free Churchmen, as perhaps they should be called, were becoming a power in the land. Lay preaching was among their "vices," and the example of the "local preachers" among the followers of Wesley, was spreading among all the other bodies. This frightened Lord Sidmouth, who introduced a Bill to regulate the preaching licenses to Dissenting ministers, it being his impression that these licences were obtained to secure exemption from filling parish offices and from serving in the militia. There was no question that the "privilege" had been grossly abused, and the better class of Dissenters—who acknowledged the evil of the work of religious instruction, and the guidance of religious

worship, being allowed to pass into the hands of the ignorant, who were sure to be, in that case, also the presumptuous—supported Lord Sidmouth.

The Wesleyans declared that they were not Dissenters and gave notice that they would not recognise the Bill which yet, however, was framed with a view to them.

A tremendous religious ferment followed. The Premier acknowledged himself to be "seriously alarmed;" Wilberforce and his friends "dreaded interference with religious meetings in private houses;" Lord Harrowby "did not believe the Church's welfare would be advanced by restrictions put on Nonconformity."

But Lord Sidmouth persisted, and in 1811 he introduced "a Bill to explain and render more effectual the Acts of the first of William and Mary, and the nineteenth of George III. so far as relates to Dissenting ministers." He stigmatised the holders of preaching licenses as "tailors, pig-drovers, and chimney-sweepers," and he raised an opposition from quarters he little expected.

Lord Holland opposed the Bill with great vigour; he "complained of the insolence of declaring persons to be unfit to preach religion because they were in a humble station in life; because they might, as Lord Sidmouth said, have come down into the pulpit from the chimney, or from the pillory; he objected to any dictation from any quarter as to who was, and who was not, to utter truth, or what seemed to him to be such, in his own way; and he thought it better that a small number of unfit persons should enjoy the exemption (such as from serving in the militia and on juries) granted to Dissenting ministers than that conflicts on the subject of religious liberty should be provoked, without any public solicitation from the Dissenters themselves."

The Bill was lost, but many years elapsed before Dissenters obtained that equality before the law which Lord Holland aided them to procure. Three days after the defeat of Lord Sidmouth's Bill, they met in London and founded the "Protestant Society for the Protection of Religious Liberty." Two hundred congregations contributed to its support. The final object of the Society was to obtain the repeal of every law which prevented the complete enjoyment of religious liberty.

Very shortly after this, an Act was passed by which Dissenters were relieved from oaths required by the Toleration Act, and also from the Declaration prescribed in the Act of 1779. The new Act repealed the Five Mile and Conventicle Acts. By the former Act no person was allowed to preach until he had taken the oaths; by this Act any person might preach, being merely liable to be called upon to take them once, if required to do so in writing, from a justice of the peace.

The Toleration Act did not provide for the punishment of people who disturbed religious worship *outside*; but this Act imposed a penalty of forty pounds on any person guilty of making a disturbance within or without.* This relief was accomplished in 1812, and the following year Unitarians were delivered from exposure to penalties affecting their particular persuasion. They had already escaped, through the liberality of friends and neighbours, who would not call into operation existing laws; but now, by express Act of Parliament, their penal liabilities were brought to an end. The excitement produced by Lord Sidmouth's Bill thus led to the extension of religious freedom in this country. Good came out of evil.†

Before proceeding further it may be well to glance at some of the leading men on the Episcopal Bench, and at some of the principal ministers and leaders of thought in other churches during the period ranging from 1801 to 1832.

* Brooks' "History of Religious Liberty," Vol. II., p. 395.
† Stoughton's "Religion in England," Vol. VII., p. 24.

RAIKES GATHERING WAIFS FOR HIS SUNDAY SCHOOL.

In 1801, the Rev. John Moore, D.D., was Archbishop of Canterbury (there were eight Archbishops of Canterbury in all during the century). He was not a man of mark either as preacher, thinker, or administrator; he feebly advocated Sunday Schools, originated by Raikes in 1781, but did not dare to lend countenance to so great an innovation as the Church Missionary Society, established in 1799, of which he was asked to be president. He died in 1805, and Charles Manners Sutton, D.D., succeeded to the Archiepiscopal throne, and remained in that office until 1828.

"The days of Archbishop Moore and Archbishop Sutton were days of great sinecures and of pluralities worthy of the mediæval period," says Canon Jenkyns; but though this was true, there were many points in the character of Manners Sutton to be greatly admired.* He claimed on behalf of the Church at large, "a tender regard with respect to the religious scruples of individuals." He declared himself broadly, in the debate on

MEETING AT WHICH THE CHURCH MISSIONARY SOCIETY WAS FOUNDED.

Lord Sidmouth's Bill, against all intolerances, and asserted for all Christians the inalienable rights of conscience. Dr. Sutton was, however, strongly opposed to Catholic emancipation.

Henry Bathurst, Bishop of Norwich, was so gentle by nature, and so tolerant by habit, that his clergy had too good a time of it, and brought reproach on their characters as well as on their profession. He was a very catholic man, and in the House of Lords took the Liberal side, advocating the rights of Dissenters, supporting the claims of Roman Catholics, and, what was very unusual in those times, appearing in his Cathedral City as the friend of unsectarian education, and as a zealous member of the British and Foreign Bible Society.†

* When T. Sidney Cooper, the still living painter, was a small boy, one day in the precincts of Canterbury Cathedral, he was in great distress because he had half a dozen pencils but no knife to sharpen them. He met a benevolent looking old gentleman, and screwed up his courage to ask him for the loan of a penknife; when the old gentleman understood why a knife was wanted, he set to work and sharpened all the boy's pencils. Cooper afterwards discovered it was the Archbishop who had befriended him.

†Bathurst was a great friend of Joseph John Gurney, the philanthropic Quaker; he was also a famous whist player. When the Whigs appointed a noncard-playing Canon to Norwich, said the Bishop "This is, indeed, ungrateful. I have supported the Whigs these thirty years, and now they have sent a Canon here who does not know clubs from diamonds!"

Then there was the learned, eloquent, and imperious Horsley, who died in 1806; and John Douglas, a friend of Oliver Goldsmith and of Dr. Johnson, frequently alluded to by Boswell, who was called "the scourge of all imposters, and the terror of all quacks." He died in 1807, and in the next year there passed away Beilby Porteus, one of the most popular preachers of the day, and a well-known writer of religious books. Then there was the courtly Dr. Hurd, friend and biographer of Warburton; Richard Watson, the great apologist; and the portly Brownlow North, of Winchester.

Dr. Tomline, Bishop of Lincoln from 1787 to 1820, made his mark in a work called the "Elements of Christian Theology," and another the "Refutation of Calvinism," both of which ran through many editions and excited much controversy.

Dr. Harcourt, Bishop of Carlisle from 1791 to 1808, was raised in the later year to the Archiepiscopate of York, and remained Northern Primate until the year 1847, thus continuing a prelate for more than half a century. His grandson is the present Sir W. Vernon Harcourt.

Dr. Shute Barrington was Bishop of Durham until 1826, his episcopate extending over thirty-five years, and whose "charities were commensurate with his large revenues."

Among the other Bishops well worthy of mention was Dr. Burgess, Bishop of St. David's from 1803 to 1825, a voluminous writer, distinguished alike for profound and extensive learning and unwearied industry.

Such were some of the men who contributed to the decision of religious questions to be dealt with in this chapter; of others we shall speak more particularly when, later on we discuss the Oxford movement.

Among other bodies of Christians were to be found many remarkable men who exercised a great influence upon the thought of the nation. It is impossible to name more than a few of them, and we select for mention those who stood out as worthy advocates of special causes and theories.

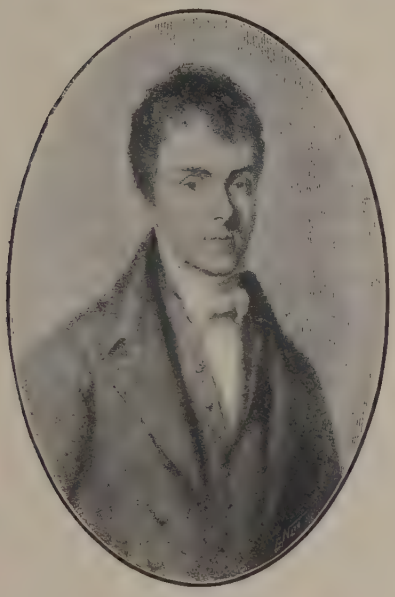
In the House of Commons were three members ever ready to promote any cause for the general good of humanity, and for uniting Christendom in bonds of peace. One was William Wilberforce, the hero of Slave Trade Abolition, a lover of India, and encourager of missions to the Hindus; another was Henry Thornton, M.P. for Southwark, author of a Book of Prayer in use in many households to this day, and a great friend of Hannah More; the third was William Smith, a Unitarian and M.P. for Norwich, the constant advocate of civil and religious liberty.

The "Clapham Sect," as it was erroneously called, was supposed to be the head and front of the Evangelical Movement from 1800-1815. Only a few of its members, however, were residents of Clapham—it was the gathering together of men like-minded, to discuss, in that neighbourhood, the religious problems of the day, that gave it its name. Among the company was Henry Thornton, who lived at Battersea Rise, where Pitt used frequently to spend a short holiday.* Near to him lived George Grant, one of the Directors of the East India Company; across the Common was the house of Lord Teignmouth, formerly Governor-General of India; near to him lived James Stephen, father of Sir James Stephen, the celebrated essayist, and Zachary Macaulay. Wilberforce had a house not far from Henry Thornton's (the two estates, in fact, united), but being of a wandering disposition, he did not stay long there, and moved about from

* Pitt designed Henry Thornton's bow-windowed dining room at Battersea Rise. It still exists.

place to place. Wilberforce was the mainstay of the "Clapham Sect," and the leader in every generous enterprise brought under discussion.

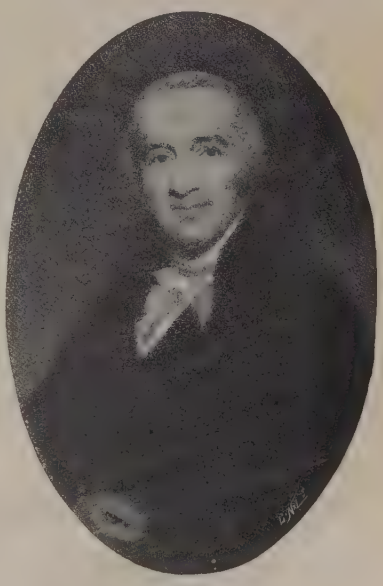
Among the visiting members, as opposed to residents, who attended the gatherings were Dr. Dealtry and the Rev. John Venn, incumbent of Clapham, both being great Evangelical preachers, William Smith, the Unitarian, and the only member not a churchman, Henry Martyn, the missionary, Isaac Milner, Master of Queens and Dean of Carlisle, Charles Simeon, of Cambridge, Thomas Gisborne, Hannah More, Thomas Babington, M.P. for Leicester, and others.



HENRY MARTYN.

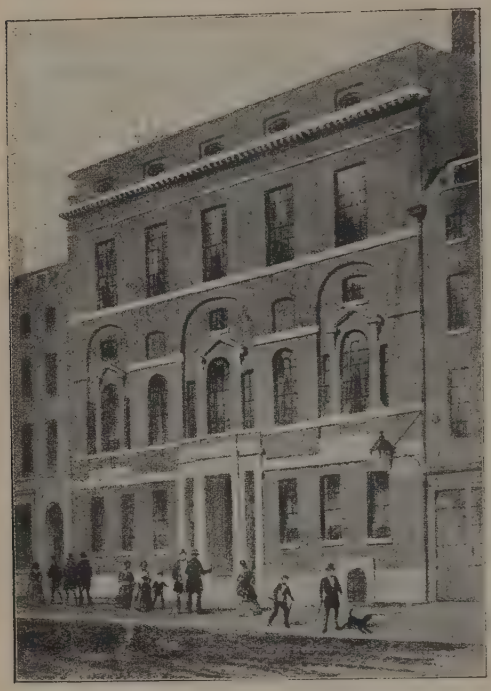
At these conferences, or "Cabinet Councils," all kinds of subjects for the welfare of Church and State were discussed, and the influence exerted was very powerful in all Progressive movements of the day, among which were the establishment of Foreign Missionary Societies, of the London Jewish Society, of educational institutions, and of a religious newspaper, the "Christian Observer," under the editorship of Babington, to exploit the views of the party.

Among other institutions founded by the Evangelical Party were the Religious Tract Society—the idea of the Rev. George Burder, of Coventry—founded in 1799, for the circulation of leaflets and books of religious instruction by colporteurs or hawkers, the formation of small libraries at home and in the Colonies, and the circulation of Evangelical literature in foreign lands. Out of the Tract Society sprang the British and Foreign Bible Society, organised in 1804, with Lord Teignmouth, of the Clapham Sect, as its president; its fundamental rule being "that the only copies in the language of the United Kingdom to be circulated by the society shall be the authorised version without note or comment." Another society of great importance owed its origin very largely to the Quaker family of the Gurneys, famous for their labours in introducing shorthand writing. In 1803 William Brodie Gurney called a meeting at the house of his father, Joseph Gurney, and projected a public meeting, at which the Sunday School Union was formed. Sunday Schools had been in existence for some years, but were unconnected with each other. In those days, when the education of the poor was at a very low ebb, and the lower classes were either infidel or unintelligent to the last degree, the labours of the Sunday School Union effected incalculable good. These



CHARLES SIMEON.

three great movements were precursors of others, according to the requirements of the rapid progress of thought and achievement, and, whatever the Evangelical movement may have lacked, the nation nevertheless owes it a debt of everlasting gratitude for its labours in the causes we have mentioned.



THE NEW LONDON TAVERN, BISHOPSGATE.
Meeting place of British and Foreign Bible Society in its early days.

It was among such men as these that combined action was taken in any national peril, or for the assistance of the oppressed in other countries; for example:—Soon after the restoration of the Bourbons in 1815, many of those who had left the south of France during the stormy days of war returned to their native places and renewed some old conspiracies. One of their schemes was to suppress the Reformation; to re-establish the Jesuits, and to have only one form of religion in the land. The proclamation of this crusade led to rioting, and rioting to horrible scenes of bloodshed and cruelty at Nismes and other places. Sir Samuel Romilly stated in the House of Commons that he should be "within the real numbers when he asserted that in these dreadful scenes two hundred women had been murdered and nearly two thousand men, and that three hundred and fifty houses had been destroyed." In this state of affairs all the English religious bodies united in presenting petitions to the Prime Minister (Lord Liverpool) to use his best offices with France on behalf of the oppressed; and in addition a splendid sum of money was contributed for the relief of the French Protestants.

In 1827, the burning question of the repeal of the Corporation and Test Acts was raised, and Lord John Russell was asked to take the Parliamentary leadership of this crusade. In the following year he moved for a Committee of the whole House to consider the Acts of XIII. and XXV. of Charles II., and was supported by Lord Althorp, Lord Milton, and Mr. Brougham. The Government was against the measure; Mr. Peel regarded it "as a sentimental grievance;" Lord Palmerston would render no support until the Roman Catholic claims were met. Nevertheless, a majority of forty-four votes carried Lord John Russell's motion, to the joy of an enormous crowd gathered outside the House. It is on record that Mr. Spring Rice, afterwards Lord Monteagle, took off his hat and cheered until he reached the opposite side of the Palace Yard, and that the noise of the general cheering could be heard at Charing Cross. In the House of Lords, although Lord Winchelsea wished to exclude Unitarians, whom he regarded as "infidels," and Lord Eldon denounced the measure "as bad, as mischievous, and as revolutionary, as the most captious Dissenters could wish it to be," it found favour on the Episcopal Bench, and was supported by both archbishops. "Religious tests," said Dr. Howley, Archbishop of Canterbury, "imposed for political purposes, must in them-

selves be always liable more or less to endanger religious sincerity." In Committee of the House of Lords, Dr. Coplestone, Bishop of Llandaff, moved that a clause should be added to the declaration "on the true faith of a Christian" (words which Lord John Russell interpreted as simply meaning the faith of the community to which a person belonged); and so the Bill was passed and the Royal assent was given to it in May, 1828. The event was celebrated by a dinner at the Freemason's Tavern, under the presidency of the Duke of Sussex, who had enthusiastically helped on the progress of the measure.

By the abolition of the Test and Corporation Acts, Roman Catholics, equally with Protestant Dissenters, were enabled to hold offices in Corporations and were freed from the bondage of being compelled to take the Sacrament according to the usage of the Church of England. But the Roman Catholics were still under the disability of sitting in either House of Parliament, by virtue of the Papists Disabling Act of 1678, which required all persons taking their seats as peers, or as members of the House of Commons, to make a declaration "against the doctrine of transubstantiation, the adoration of the Virgin Mary, and the sacrifice of the Mass."

A violent agitation, led by Daniel O'Connell, ensued. In July, 1828, he was elected member for the county of Clare, in Ireland, and this open defiance led Mr. Peel, the Home Secretary, to declare that a settlement of the vexed question had become a necessity, and early in 1829, he introdued his famous Catholic Emancipation Bill. It was opposed by the King (George IV.), the two archibishops, the bishops, and many leading Dissenters. "No Popery," and "The Church in danger," became the party cries, and the excitement was so strong that the Duke of Wellington apprehended civil war. Nevertheless, the Bill was passed in April, 1829, and from that time forth Roman Catholics were enabled to sit in Parliament, to hold any corporation or judicial office, except those in ecclesiastical courts, and all political offices except those of Regent, Lord Lieutenant of Ireland, and Lord Chancellor of either England or Ireland.*

DANIEL O' CONNELL.

As the result of the measure down to 1871, not more than six Catholics altogether represented English constituencies; not more than one was returned for Scotland; and the largest number that came from Ireland did not amount to more than fifty-one. "The total number of Roman Catholic members may be computed at about one-sixteenth of the House of Commons. The Protestant character of that assembly was unchanged."†

Let us now take a glance at some of the leading men of the various religious organisations throughout the country.

In London, among the Independents—or Congregationalists as they are now called—were the Reverend John Clayton, pastor of the King's Weigh House in

* In 1867 the office of Lord Chancellor of Ireland was thrown open to Roman Catholics.

† "May's Constitutional History," Vol. III, p. 176.

Eastcheap, and his three sons, all in the ministry; Dr. Collyer, of Peckham, whose eloquent preaching attracted all classes, including the Duke of Kent and the Duke of Sussex. In the provinces, James Parsons, of York; John Alexander, of Norwich; Dr. Raffles, of Liverpool; John Angell James, of Birmingham; William Jay, of Bath; and John Leifchild, of Bristol, each left his mark on the religious life and literature of the country.

ROWLAND HILL.

At the head of the Baptist body, in the earlier years of the century, was Andrew Fuller, of Kettering; Robert Hall, of Leicester, whose fame was world-wide; Joseph Kinghorn, of Norwich; Dr. Rippon, of Tooley Street (to whose church the late C. H. Spurgeon succeeded in after years); and J. G. Pike, of Derby, an author, over whose book, "On Early Piety," the youth of that generation, belonging to strict Sabbatarian families, dosed or slept.

There were, and are, several sub-divisions of the Baptist body, such as General Baptists, Particular Baptists, Seventh-Day Baptists, and Sandemanians—so named after a Scotch theologian, who held very peculiar views of faith and practice. It was their custom to dine together on Sundays, to hold a "Love Feast" in the afternoon, and, when receiving a new member, to give him, or her, the kiss of charity. Strange to say, Michael Faraday, one of the greatest scientists of the century, was a Sandemanian and a preaching elder. "There is no philosophy in my religion," he wrote to one who desired to become a disciple, "I am of a very small and despised sect of Christians known, if known at all, as Sandemanians, and our hope is founded on the faith that is in Christ. But though the natural works of God can never by any possibility come in contradiction with the higher things that belong to our future existence, and must, with everything concerning Him, ever glorify Him; still, I do not think it at all necessary to tie the study of the natural sciences and religion together, and in my intercourse with my fellow-creatures, that which is religious and that which is philosophical have ever been two distinct things." *

SURREY CHAPEL.

Among the Calvinistic Methodists, the most popular was the Rev. Rowland Hill, of Surrey Chapel, who resorted to many novel artifices to catch the popular ear, and whose sermons were as full of humour as they were of wisdom, "supporting," as his biographer says, "his heavy artillery of truth with the light musketry of his wit."

*Faraday's Life and Letters, Vol. II., p. 100.

People who came up from the country included in their program of pleasure the Tower of London, the British Museum, the Zoological Gardens, and—Rowland Hill!

The Wesleyan Methodists worked their ministers in circuits, according to a plan, relied very much for their converts on revival meetings, and gave valuable aid to every philanthropic movement, especially foreign missions, under the stirring eloquence of Richard Watson and Jabez Bunting. Their great preachers and teachers of the early times were Joseph Benson, Dr. Adam Clarke, the commentator, Richard Watson, author of the Theological Institutes, and Robert Newton.

Of the Primitive Methodists, it has been said, "The energy put forth by this new society was wonderful. The preachers were humble, the people were of the labouring class, yet in a few years they swept over England and penetrated every corner. Wherever they could find an open place, there, like mediæval friars, they planted pulpits. Indeed, to speak of pulpits is a figure of speech; frequently they had no other rostrum than a waggon or a cart, a chair or a heap of stones. Driven from one place, they escaped to another, singing as they went, with indomitable confidence and unquenchable hope." *

Among the fathers of modern Unitarianism, an off-shoot from the Presbyterian body, was Theophilus Lindsey, who had been regarded as the patriarch of the Presbyterian party down to 1808. He left the Church of England, and opened a chapel in Essex Street, Strand, where he gathered together a congregation of advanced thinkers. It has been the headquarters of the Unitarians, as the City Road Chapel has been of the Wesleyans, and "its congregation has always been remarkable for intelligence, and has also numbered many people of wealth and rank among its members." Another "Father" was James Belsham, who seceded from the Independents, founded the "Unitarian Society," and issued the "Inquirer," the periodical organ of the views of the society. He contributed largely to theological literature, and was vigorously attacked by Archbishop Magee and Dr. Pye Smith, of Homerton Academy. The third of the "Fathers" was Robert Aspland, who in 1811 founded the Unitarian Academy, and became sole tutor.

During the first thirty years of the century, the denomination had among its active members many well-known authors who hold honoured places in English literature, including Mrs. Barbauld, Lucy Aiken, Joanna Baillie, Crabb Robinson, William Roscoe, Dr. Lant Carpenter, the Taylors, Starkes, Aldersons, and Martineaus.

The Society of Friends or Quakers (a religious sect founded by George Fox in 1666) was, in the early part of the century, a much more important and influential body than it is to-day.†

Stephen Grellet, son of a French nobleman, and the intimate friend and counsellor of the unfortunate Louis XVI., was one of their most active members, not only in England but in the United States and on the Continent, where he associated with all classes, from monarchs to thieves and pickpockets. When he was in England, he worked with William Forster, father of the Rt. Hon. W. E. Forster, of elementary education fame, and in 1812, they visited and laboured among the distressed Spitalfield weavers, inmates of workhouses, impoverished Jews, and companies of thieves and prostitutes. While making a visitation of the prisons in London they witnessed a scene in Newgate, in the women's quarters, which was so appalling, that steps were taken to enlist the

*"Religion in England," Vol. VII., p. 347.

†An excellent outline of their history is given in the life of the Rt. Hon. W. E. Forster, who was the son of an eminent minister of the Society of Friends.

sympathy of ladies on behalf of the outcasts. Elizabeth Fry, one of the Gurney family, heard the story, and at once entered upon the career that has made her name for ever famous.

ELIZABETH FRY.

The Friends, as a body, took the greatest possible interest in promoting peace among the nations, and in the spread of education, and assisted one of their members, Joseph Lancaster, in establishing the Lancastrian system of popular instruction, which led to the formation of the British and Foreign School Society, in 1808.

Among celebrated Quakers may be named William Dalton, the discoverer of chemical combination, on which he based his atomic theory; and William Allen, the famous chemist, and lecturer at Guy's Hospital.

It may be mentioned, in passing, that none of the churches of the old days were anything like so attractive as they are now, and that one of the most interesting features of the century is the marvellous improvement in church architecture, decoration, and comfort. In the beginning of the century, the pulpit, with two desks underneath, formed the "three decker" now laughed at, but then regarded with reverence. High pews, in which people could conveniently go to sleep without being seen; the broad, cold, middle aisle, with benches without backs for the poor; a gallery perched up so high that it touched the ceiling, with forms for little charity children where they could neither hear nor see; an undisciplined choir out of tune and time; and "the lion and the unicorn fighting for the crown" somewhere or other in conspicuous places. These were the chief features of churches at that time.*

DR. ARNOLD.

In 1830 the Church of England was on the verge of two great revolutions, both originating at Oxford; one, for free inquiry into religious questions—the precursor of the Broad Church party; the other, the return to ideas and practices supposed to have been swept away by the Reformation—the foundation of the High Church party through its various phases of Tractarianism, Puseyism, and Ritualism.

It is only to the former movement we shall now refer.

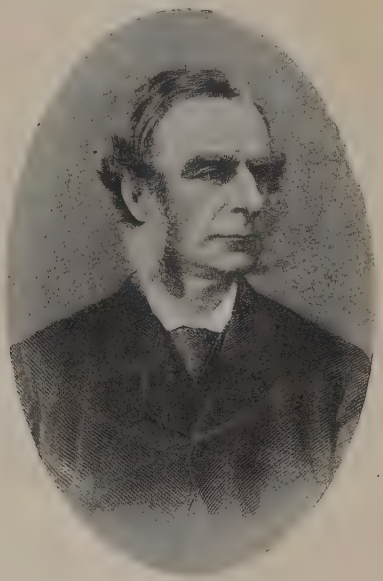
*"Religion in England."

Just before the passing of the Reform Bill, Oriel College, which had thrown open its Fellowships, became the centre of intelligent life in Oxford and the seat of this great liberal theological revolution. Up to that time the examinations in divinity were very perfunctory, there was no exact theological training, the age of religious controversy had scarcely begun. Among the "new Oriel sect" was Edward Coplestone, the provost (Bishop of Llandaff in 1827), Richard Whately, the logician, who, according to Mosley, the historian of Oriel College, regarded "High Church and Low Church as equal bigotries," Renn Dickson Hampden (Bishop of Hereford in 1847), and Thomas Arnold, of Rugby, the reformer of public school education.

From this combination arose the school of liberal, or Broad Churchmen, of whom were Samuel Taylor Coleridge, the poet and thinker, Frederick Denison Maurice, who in later years (1853) was cruelly turned out of his professorship at King's College, London, for his "advanced views," Frederick Robertson, of Brighton, one of the finest preachers of the century, and Charles Kingsley, Rector of Eversley, poet, novelist, clergyman, and social reformer.

Such is a brief outline of the state of the religious world in the first thirty years of the century. When we resume the subject it will be to note the marvellous changes in the relationship of Church and State, in the institution of philanthropic societies, in the spread of thought, and in the general progress of those things which constitute the highest good.

F. D. MAURICE.



CHARLES KINGSLEY.

CHAPTER IX.

PROGRESS OF THE ARTS AND SCIENCES, &c.

1801-1815.

THE story of the progress of the arts and sciences in the nineteenth century furnishes so overwhelmingly profuse a mass of interesting material, that the temptation to enter into detail must be sternly resisted. We shall only be able to glance at a few of the leading discoveries and theories, with the briefest possible notes upon the men who made them.

On the first night of the nineteenth century, Signor Piazzi, the astronomer of the Observatory at Palermo, in Sicily, was cogitating a new problem, namely, why the distance between Jupiter and Mars presented a larger gap in the heavens than was to be found between other planets. He caught sight of a small star in the constellation of Taurus, and, some months later, the planet Ceres was discovered—one of a series of small planets, or planetoids, several of which were soon afterwards found and named; while hundreds have since been discovered.

THE SPINNING WHEEL, 1801.

In 1803 great interest was taken among astronomers in meteors and meteoric stones, concerning which, up to that time, the world was in profound ignorance. One night, the people in the town of Aigle, in Normandy, were startled by seeing a globe of fire rushing through the air just over their town, and more so, when it dashed to the ground, and was shivered to atoms—some of the atoms exceeding seventeen pounds in weight. M. Biot, a famous French chemist, was sent by his Government to investigate the matter, and from that time forth meteors and meteoric showers have been watched and studied until the Board School boy of to-day knows more upon the subject than the *savant* of 1801.

IRON FOUNDRY, 1801.

With renewed interest in astronomy, the means for discovering heavenly bodies increased, and the rough telescope of Galileo began to give place to the magnificent instruments that are now to be found in all our great observatories.

One of the most wonderful theories ever propounded was set forth in 1801 by Dr. Thomas Young, the first professor of Natural Philosophy at the Royal Institution of London, which had just been founded. He defended the theory of Christian Huyghens a Dutch scientist, who, in 1678, had advanced the idea that light could only be explained by supposing it to be a *vibration*, like sound. Young tells us himself that it was "in May, 1801, that he first made an experiment which seemed to him to prove that light must be a succession of tiny waves, moving across space, as Huyghens had supposed." His experiment was the following. He made a hole in the window shutter of a dark room, and covered it with a piece of thick paper, in which he had pricked a small hole with a needle. He then put a small looking-glass outside the shutter, so as to throw the sunlight very full upon the hole and send a cone of spreading light through it. In this cone of light he held a very narrow strip of card and watched the shadow which it threw on the wall, or on another piece of card behind it. On each side of the shadow there were some faint fringes of colour, but besides this he saw, *in the shadow itself*, dark and light upright tinted bands, which finished off in a faint white band in the middle of the shadow. It was from these faint bands, which many men would have thought not worth noticing, that Young worked out the truth of the Wave Theory of Light.*

In 1800, Sir William Herschel, following up the discovery of Newton that white light is composed of different coloured rays (the coloured band produced by allowing a sunbeam to pass through a prism), found that with these coloured rays there were also invisible rays giving out heat. In 1801, Professor Ritter, of Jena, made the discovery of chemical rays, capable of decomposing or breaking up nitrate of silver and other substances; Dr. Wollaston, in the following year made the remarkable discovery that the solar-spectrum was crossed by black lines. These were the germs of some of the greatest discoveries of the century—spectrum-analysis and photography:—"Spectrum-analysis, which so greatly extends our knowledge of the universe, that by its assistance we are able to ascertain the relative heat and chemical constitution of the stars, and ascertain the existence, and measure the rate of motion, of stellar bodies which are entirely invisible;" and "Photography, an art which is to the external forms of nature, what printing is to thought."†

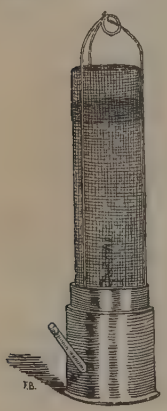
So early as 1802, Sir Humphrey Davy and Dr. Thomas Wedgwood conceived the idea that pictures might be taken by the rays of the sun acting upon chloride of silver, and they partially succeeded, but could not prevent their pictures from fading away. This was not accomplished until 1839, when Daguerre, a Frenchman, established Daguerreotype.

In 1808, Malus, a young French engineer, discovered the Polarization of Light by reflection, as a result of looking at the sunlight reflected from the windows of the Luxembourg Palace in Paris, when seen through a prism of Iceland spar. In 1811, Sir John Leslie made his experiments into the nature of the properties of heat which assisted in leading up to one of the grandest discoveries of modern science—the great principle of the Conservation of Energy, which is, "that the whole amount of *energy*, or

*Buckley's History of Natural Science.
†Alfred Russel Wallace.

power of doing work, possessed by any set of bodies, remains unaltered whatever transformations it may undergo. It may exist in one of two forms—either as *potential* or stored-up energy, which is unseen by us, or as *visible energy*, when it is actually performing work; but, while it changes from one form to another, its amount never alters."*

Never in the history of the world were so many important investigations, leading to marvellous discoveries, made, as in the years 1800-1815. Between 1800-1806, Cavendish discovered Electrolysis, or the decomposition of substances by electric currents:—it was he who first analysed water, and discovered the gases of which it is composed. Davy found out the properties of nitrous oxide gas and tested them upon himself; Dr. John Dalton announced his atomic theory, which was adopted by Thomson, Davy, Faraday, and the famous French chemist Gay-Lussac, and in 1811, the molecular theory of gases was propounded by an Italian chemist, named Avogadro.



THE ORIGINAL SAFETY LAMP.

In 1815, Sir Humphrey Davy invented his safety lamp, which was used for the first time in January, 1816, in a coal pit, by the Rev. John Hodgson of Jarrow, near Newcastle, to whom Sir Humphrey had sent two for trial. Mr. Hodgson, we are told in his biography, armed with one of these lamps, descended Hebburn Pit, walked about in a terrible atmosphere of fire-damp, or explosive gas, held his lamp high and low, and saw it become full of blazing gas without producing any explosion. He approached gradually to a miner working by the spark light of a steel mill—a disc of steel kept revolving in contact with a piece of flint—such arrangement being safe, though affording very little light. The man had not the slightest knowledge that such a wonder as the safety-lamp was in existence and no notice had been given him of what was to take place. He was alone in an atmosphere of great danger, 'in the midst of life or death,' when he saw a light approaching, apparently a candle burning openly, the effect of which he knew would be instant destruction to him and its bearer. He cried out frantically "Put out the light!" The light came nearer and nearer. No regard was paid to his cries which became wild, mingled with imprecations against his comrade (for such he took Hodgson to be), who was tempting death in so rash and certain a way. Still, not a word was said in reply; the light continued to approach, and then oaths were turned into prayers that his request might be granted; until there stole before him, silently exulting in his success, a grave and thoughtful man, whom he well knew and respected, holding up in his sight, with a gentle smile, the triumph of science, the future safeguard of all pitmen. Of course, Mr. Hodgson was much to blame in subjecting the poor miner to so terrible an ordeal, but in the circumstances, it was, perhaps, excusable.

Three months before this experiment was made with Davy's lamp, namely, on the 21st of October, 1815, George Stephenson—afterwards the celebrated engineer—who had also devised a safety lamp, made a similar experiment. On that day, accompanied by his son Robert, then a boy, he descended into the Killingworth Mine, near Newcastle, with Mr. Nicholas Wood, one of the superintendents. "Advancing alone," says Dr. Smiles, "with his yet untried lamp, in the depths of those underground workings—

*Buckley's History of Natural Science.

calmly venturing his own life in the determination to discover a mode by which the lives of many might be saved and death disarmed in these fatal caverns—he presented an example of intrepid nerve and manly courage, more noble even than that, which, in the excitement of battle and the impetuosity of a charge, carries a man up to the cannon's mouth. Advancing to the place of danger and entering within the fouled air, his lighted lamp in hand, Stephenson held it firmly out in the full current of the blower, and within a few inches of its mouth. Thus exposed, the flame of the lamp had first increased, and then flickered and went out, but there was no explosion of gas. Such was the result of the first experiment with the first practical miners' safety lamp and such the daring resolution of its inventor in testing its valuable qualities."

Davy and Stephenson both invented the safety lamp. Each acted independently of the other; both adopted the same principle, but approached it from a different standpoint. Davy found that flame will not pass through minute tubes; he considered that a sheet of wire gauze might be regarded as a series of little tubes placed side by side. He, therefore, formed a plan for encircling the flame of a lamp with a cylinder of such gauze, and he proved that though imflammable air could get through the meshes to reach the flame, it would not emerge again in the form of flame, to ignite the rest of the air in a mine. Stephenson's idea was, that if he could establish a current within his lamp, by a chimney at its top, the gas would not take fire at the top of a chimney, and he was gradually led to connect with this idea, an arrangement by a number of small tubes for admitting the air below—being a very near approach to Davy's plan.

A. VON HUMBOLDT.

In another department of science, Biology—the science of Life or of living beings—was receiving particular study. Alexander von Humboldt, who commenced his great work called "Cosmos" or "The Universe," in 1793, and passed the last sheets for press in 1858, when he was ninety years old, was a great student of Nature in all her aspects and in all places. He set himself to find out the temperatures of the climates in all countries, and the causes of their variations (*Isothermal lines*, or lines of equal heat over the globe); the different species of plants that grow at various heights, and why certain plants are only to be found in certain places (the Distribution of Plants). He returned from his celebrated journeys in South America in 1804, bringing with him an immense mass of fresh knowledge in geography, geology, climatology, meteorology, botany, zoology, and every branch of natural science. He took up his abode in Paris, where in conjunction with the best scientific men, each in his own sphere, he published twenty-eight large volumes relating to the facts he had ascertained in his travels.

Three of his coadjutors were the Chevalier de Lamarck, Professor of Zoology in the Paris Museum of Natural History, Geoffroy St. Hilaire, his fellow professor, and the famous George Leopold Cuvier, assistant-professor of Comparative Anatomy—a quartet of the most remarkable men of that or any other age.

Lamarck made some splendid "guesses at truth" on the development of animals out of a few simple forms—guesses long since exploded or better explained. St. Hilaire discovered that the parts or organs are the same in all animals, only modified to suit their wants—(homology, it is called),—which brought about a well-known controversy between St. Hilaire and Cuvier, although the theory of St. Hilaire on the development of living beings is still held by the ablest modern naturalists. Cuvier established proof that "the parts of an animal agree so exactly that from seeing one fragment the whole can be known." In his "Règne Animal," published in 1817, he contended "that every organised being forms a whole and entire system . . . none of its parts can change without a change of the others also. Thus, if the stomach of an animal is made so as only to digest fresh flesh, his jaws must be formed to devour the prey; his claws to seize and tear it; his teeth to divide the flesh, and the whole system of his organs of motion to follow and overtake it. Nature must even have planted in his brain the necessary instinct to hide himself and lay snares for his victim. These are the general conditions of a carnivorous life, and all animals who are to live this life must fulfil them, otherwise they cannot exist. And, besides these general conditions, there are special ones, according to the particular kind of life the animal has to live, and each of these require modifications in the form of the organs, so that not only the class, but the order, the genus, and even the species of an animal are revealed by each part of it."

To Cuvier we are indebted for wonderful discoveries in fossil remains of animals. He was the first to restore their fossil bones, and to prove the long succession of different animals wholly unknown to us, which must have lived in long past ages of the earth.

About this period botanists were eagerly discussing the theory of the poet Goethe, on the metamorphosis or transformation of plants, which he set forth in 1790, namely, that all the different parts of a plant are only peculiar transformations of simple stems and leaves. Among these botanists was Conrad Sprengel, who saw a marvellous connection between plants and insects—more fully worked out in later years by Charles Darwin, and Robert Brown, who first clearly established the principles of structural and physiological botany—the theory of the life of plants.

Although King George was anything but a learned man, he did his best to encourage the Arts and Sciences. He took a deep personal interest in Agriculture, and to him may be traced our present Agricultural Societies; it was he who (1809) first introduced merino sheep into this country; he gave special attention to mechanics, and to the construction of optical and other philosophical instruments. He fitted up an Observatory with all the necessary apparatus, and conferred (in 1768) a great service on Art by founding the Royal Academy—of which Sir Joshua Reynolds was the first president. It was under his auspices that Captain Cook, Dr. Solander, and Sir Joseph Banks sailed to the Pacific in the interests of maritime discovery, astronomy, and other branches of science; he took an honest pride and pleasure in naval enterprise and the progress of invention, while of music and musicians he was a constant and intelligent patron. He was above the average as a reader, and his magnificent library at Buckingham Palace—now the King's Library in the British Museum—consisted of sixty-three thousand volumes, and cost, it is said, £130,000. He encouraged literature in many ways as will presently be seen.

When the century opened, the establishment of Messrs. Boulton & Watt, of the old Soho Factory, Birmingham, was the home of the Steam-Engine, which from year to year was found capable of new applications. Watt—who entered into partnership with Boulton in 1774—was the 'father of the Steam-Engine,' although he was not the first to establish the working power of steam, nor was he the first to invent a steam-engine, he was its great improver, to such an extent, as to all that is valuable in its structure or vast in its utility, that he has generally been regarded as its inventor. Like other contrivances and discoveries, the invention of the steam-engine was effected step by step, one man transmitting the result of his labours to his successors, who took it up and carried it forward another stage. By the inventions of Watt its actions were so regulated as to make it capable of being applied to the finest and most delicate manufactures, and its power so increased as to set weight and solidity at defiance. "By his admirable contrivance" said Lord Jeffrey, "it has become a thing stupendous alike for its force and its flexibility, for the prodigious power which it can exert, and the ease and precision and ductility with which it can be varied, distributed, and applied. The trunk of an elephant that can take up a pin or rend an oak, is as nothing to it. It can engrave a seal, and crush masses of obdurate metal before it; draw out, without breaking, a thread as fine as gossamer, and lift a ship of war like a bauble in the air. It can embroider muslin and forge anchors, cut steel into ribbons and impel loaded vessels against the fury of the winds and waves."

It was in America that the "navigation of boats by means of a steam-engine on board," originated. In 1784, John Fitch, an American engineer, said to some men he employed, "Well, gentlemen, although I shall not live to see the time, you will, when steam-boats will be preferred to all other means of conveyance, and especially for passengers." When he retired, the men said one to another, "Poor chap! what a pity he is crazy!" He was not crazy, but disappointed, because many schemes he had projected for propelling vessels by steam, had failed. He became an unfortunate and broken-hearted man, and died by his own hand in 1798. But he was one of the great pioneers of steam navigation.

THE "COMET."

The '*Clermont*,' plying on the Hudson in 1807 with passengers and goods between New York and Albany, was the first steamboat in the world that was regularly and continuously engaged in passenger traffic. Robert Fulton, the owner, did not claim to have been the inventor, but he claimed to have been the first to combine the inventions of others and to successfully and continuously run a steamship. For a long while the self-moving vessel was "an object of horror, by night especially, to the dwellers on the interior rivers, and to the pirates who hovered about the coast in war time. They believed that the monster, braving wind and tide, and spitting fire, was sent after them and had demons for her crew."

Fulton, although he made practical the dream of Fitch, gained little for himself. He died in 1815, a poor man, done to death by the persecutions of jealous and narrow-minded rivals.

The first steam-passage boat for passengers in use in Great Britain was the 'Comet.' Below is the advertisement of her first sailing :—

THE STEAM PASSAGE BOAT, THE "COMET,"

Between GLASGOW, GREENOCK and HELENSBURGH, for Passengers only.

"The subscriber having, at much expense, fitted up a handsome vessel to ply upon the River Clyde, between Glasgow and Greenock, to sail by the Power of Wind, Air, and Steam, he intends that the vessel shall leave the Broomielaw on Tuesdays, Thursdays and Saturdays about midday, or at such hour thereafter as may answer from the state of the tide, and to leave Greenock on Mondays, Wednesdays and Fridays in the morning to suit the tide.

HENRY BELL."

Helensburgh Baths, August 5th, 1812.

The "Comet"* steamed away from the quay at the appointed time. She was only forty feet in length of keel, and ten-and-a-half feet beam ; her engines, which cost £192, were four horse-power, and her draught of water four feet. She was not much to look at, and yet so wonderful a sight had never been seen before in Europe.

It was not for some years after steam navigation had come into practical use that the locomotive was invented.

Notwithstanding the prevalence of war, the years between 1801 and 1815 were years of general progress in the Arts and Sciences. During that period the manufacture of iron had steadily increased; more especially when Messrs. Trevethick and Vivian connected the idea of the rough steam carriage with the iron way, of which we shall speak more particularly later on. Everywhere the increasing manufacture of iron led more and more to the introduction of machinery, which was to revolutionise the artisan life of the country.

One or two aspects of the tendency of the times in this respect may be given here.

David Dale, one of the "fathers" of the cotton manufacture in Scotland, commenced in 1783, in union with Sir Richard Arkwright, the celebrated New Lanark cotton mills. He overcame enormous difficulties connected with the prejudice and narrow-mindedness of the surrounding country gentlefolk, and attracted to himself the best workmen by his philanthropic efforts to raise them from the position of mere "hands," or drudges, into men.†

The Company originated by good old David Dale was afterwards carried on by his son-in-law, Robert Owen, who instituted further reforms for the improvement of the condition of his workmen. In 1812 he published his "New Views of Society," insisting upon an absolute equality among men. In endeavouring to reduce his principles to practice he set up three separate towns, in three separate places, as "Social Communities," but all of them proved signal failures. The era of Socialism was not yet, but its day was foreshadowed in the labours of Robert Owen.

*So named from the comet visible that year ; the engines of the little vessel are in the South Kensington Museum.

†David Dale was a remarkably fat, short, and thick set man, and many jokes were made at his expense. He spoke, one day, of having fallen all his length on the ice, to which a friend replied that "He had reason to be thankful that it was not all his breadth;" while David Black, his assistant, added "And no great length to fa'." "Ah," said Dale, "but I hurt the sma' of my back." "And whar's that?" asked the imperturbable Black.

There was beginning to arise, about this time, a strong, earnest manhood in the lower and middle classes, who were looking to the future in enterprise and hope, and were beginning to take their places as a growing element in the national administration, and a strong sinew of national strength. It was as their representative that Wilberforce demanded and obtained the abolition of the slave trade, and it was to them that Sir Francis Burdett appealed in his strenuous efforts for Reform. In 1809 Sir Francis Burdett (whose wife was the daughter of Thomas Coutts, the banker), owing to the flagrancy of Parliamentary corruption, urged the necessity of Reform. But the times were not ripe for it, at all events only fifteen members supported his motion; moreover, he lacked caution. In a pamphlet he alluded to the House of Commons as "a part of

SIR FRANCIS BURDETTS' ELECTION FOR WESTMINSTER, 1818.

our fellow subjects collected together by means which it is not necessary to describe," and wrote of the "domineering spirit of a corrupt assembly, which, while it pretended to represent His Majesty's subjects, invaded their rights," and so on. The Commons determined to assert their privileges; proceedings were taken against him for a gross and scandalous libel, and he was committed to the Tower. As he would not go peacefully, he was taken by force under the guardianship of police officers and a detachment of troops. But the "people" were in his favour, and they attacked his escort with so much violence that the soldiers had to fire upon them in self-defence. Sir Francis was detained in the Tower till the prorogation of Parliament; in 1819 he was again imprisoned, and fined £2,000 for libel. In his later years he became a Tory, but throughout his long career he was always popular with the people.*

* When, on one occasion, he won a strongly disputed election, he was "chaired," not in the ordinary way as the prize winner at Bisley is chaired, but in a much more elaborate manner. History tells us that the "procession and triumphal car started from Covent Garden and worked its way to the Baronet's house in Piccadilly, where he mounted the car, which was as high as the one pair of stairs windows, and the seat upon which he was placed stood upon a lofty Corinthian pillar! On this uncomfortable elevation he rode from Piccadilly down the Haymarket, up St. Martin's Lane, and so into Covent Garden, where a good dinner was provided." That was in the good old times, when elections were not the tame affairs they are now.

The discoveries of Watt and Arkwright, and the introduction of machinery generally, tended at first to be destructive to the labouring classes, who were, as a rule, totally uneducated, and could not work out for themselves the idea, or the belief, that machinery could then, or at any future time, advance their interests. All they could see was that if one person could, with the help of machinery, spin as much cotton as two hundred persons would have spun in the same time, it was bad, and only bad, for the one hundred and ninety nine. In 1811, when wheat was at famine prices, when the population had risen from ten to thirteen millions, when wages were lower than they had ever been before, when war was raging, and no one could foretell when it would end, the suffering poor, attributing most of their misfortunes to the introduction of machinery, grew impatient. All around them they saw idle "hands:" they saw small traders sinking into pauperism, they saw gaunt starvation stalking through their streets—never had the distress in the country been greater within the memory of men then living.

The news of some horrible murders committed in London spread through the provinces, and deeds of violence were savagely committed, and more savagely punished. Still the disaffection spread. The more opulent of the working classes who could afford to strike, struck, but the weaving and spinning trades had sunk too low for even this resource. They took to rioting, and they began in November, 1811, in Nottingham, where it was known that thirty thousand hosiery frames were already in use.

One Sunday morning, an angry and half-starved mob met in the market-place and the streets; next day they proceeded to a manufacturer's at Bulwell, burst into his factory, which was barricaded and garrisoned by armed workmen, set the place on fire, burnt the house down, and with it all the offending frames.

Within two months the Luddite,* or Machine-breaking, riots, had spread into Derbyshire and Leicestershire, Nottingham still remaining the head-quarters of the insurrection.

Then for the space of two years the riots continued over all the northern and midland counties, attended everywhere with incendiarism and blood-shed; the lead from churches and public buildings was carried off to make bullets, new and horrible forms of murder were devised, and a reign of terror set in. The worst of the riots were suppressed by military force, but it was not until some years after the peace of 1816, when prosperity returned, that they ceased.

A mere glance at a few examples, taken almost promiscuously, of the progress of the Arts and Sciences, other than those mentioned elsewhere, between the years 1801-1815, will show that even in those troublous times industrial England was busy in contributing to make the Nineteenth Century the most wonderful of all the centuries. In 1802 the sum of £10,500 was voted to Dr. Jenner for the promulgation of his valuable discovery of Vaccination, by which it was hoped that the curse of small-pox would eventually be extirpated. In the same year Henry Greathead was rewarded for his crude invention of a life-boat, and Dr. Carmichael Smith for discovery of nitrous fumigation to prevent the spread of infectious disorders. In 1809 Captain Manby, R.N., succeeded in experiments to throw a coiled rope over stranded vessels, by which a communication with the shore might be gained and the crews rescued.

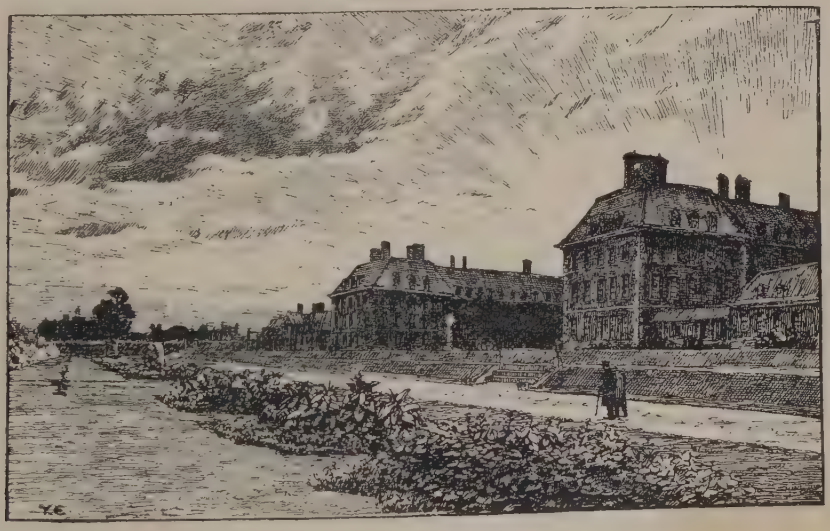
In 1812 the great Plymouth Breakwater was commenced under the direction of the celebrated engineer, the elder Rennie; the canal system, originated by the Duke of

* Supposed to be so-called after one Ned Lud, a lunatic, who, pursuing a boy who had tormented him, broke into a house where he had fled, and destroyed all the stocking frames.

PLYMOUTH.

Bridgewater in 1759, was largely developed; attempts were successfully made to improve the growing metropolis; a new school of philanthropists arose, of whom Sir Samuel Romilly was a conspicuous example, to protest against the iniquity of some existing laws, and to advocate the rights of men as men; in 1804 the British and Foreign Bible Society was founded; in 1813 Episcopacy was established in India. In 1801 the Royal Military Asylum at Chelsea was founded, and in 1806 the first stone was laid of Haileybury College for the training of Indian rulers and Civil Servants.

In 1803 Mungo Park, who in 1799 had published his "Travels in Africa," was invited by the Government to resume his explorations. He perished, it is believed, on the Niger, near Boussa, in 1805, the first of the noble army of African martyrs.



CHELSEA HOSPITAL.

Of Music, the Fine Arts, and the Drama, there is little to record during the period under consideration, and of literature we shall write later on. One or two notes as to Music and the Drama may, however, be given here.

The Philharmonic Society was founded in 1813 (the Royal Academy of Music not until 1822) and Catalani was the Prima Donna of the opera.

When the naval war with France was at its height, and Nelson in his full career of glory, and the nation wild with delight in the exploits of its seamen, Charles Dibdin, playwright, composer of operas, theatrical manager, and builder of theatres, became the bard of the British Navy. He sang his memorable songs at the Sans Souci, in Leicester Square, with such patriotic fervour that the notes were caught up and echoed over land and sea, and it is said that his songs did more to recruit the Navy than all the press-gangs.

Prodigies have always been more or less popular, and they were so in the early days of the century. When the Young Roscius, a boy actor, who at the age of twelve had been playing the parts of Rollo, young Norval, Osman, and Romeo, in Scotland, Ireland, and the provinces, came to London in 1804, he took the town by storm. The excitement was unparalleled. Crowds assembled at the doors of Drury Lane and Covent Garden, where he played alternately, as early as one o'clock in the day, and at the opening of the doors, a chronicler says, "hundreds were in danger of suffocation from the mad endeavours of those behind them to force themselves forward. Although no places were unlet in the boxes, gentlemen paid box prices to have a chance of jumping over the fronts of the boxes into the pit; and then others, who could not find room for a leap of this sort, fought for standing places with those who had hired the boxes days or weeks before." The Young Roscius (William Henry West Betty by name) was presented to the King, and noticed by the rest of the Royal Family; portraits of him were circulated throughout the kingdom. Opie painted him as drawing inspiration from the tomb of Shakespeare, poets "broke up the fountains of their great deeps" in his honour, and the managers of Drury Lane pocketed £17,210 as the result of twenty-eight nights of his performances, an average of nearly £615 per night; while the receipts at Covent Garden were about the same. He retired early from the stage on his wisely invested earnings, and when, in after years, he re-appeared for a short time, he was so complete a failure that nobody cared to see him a second time.

Covent Garden Theatre was burnt to the ground on the 20th of September, 1808, involving the loss of many lives and the destruction of property valued at about a quarter of a million sterling. Within a year the theatre was rebuilt and opened to the public, but before the opening the proprietors had issued a prospectus to the effect that the great expense incurred in rebuilding the theatre rendered it necessary to raise the prices of admission to the boxes and pit. This was strongly objected to by play-goers on the ground that as Covent Garden and Drury Lane were "patent," or Royal theatres, and claimed great privileges over all the minor establishments—making Shakespeare's plays, for example, impossible to be seen at any other houses—the people should have some control over the prices of admission.

When, on the opening night, September 17th, 1809, Mr. Kemble came forward to recite some lines, he was received with volleys of hooting, groaning, whistling, "cat-calls," and cries of "Old prices!" The latter was soon abbreviated to "O.P.," and the riots that ensued are known in history as the "O.P. Riots." The uproar lasted for three months, and night after night "the people in the pit turned their backs upon the actors, and the din of cries, stamping, horns, trumpets, dustmen's bells, and watchmen's rattles, was insufferable. When the cry of 'O.P.' could no longer be heard, the letters were stuck upon hats and placards, and at length there was fighting—serious boxing between the police and the audience, and between rival partisans, and tearing up of benches and breaking of chandeliers." The whole affair ended in a trial in Westminster Hall, with the result that the managers of the theatre had to yield, and order was restored.

CHAPTER X.

ABOLITION OF THE SLAVE TRADE.

IN 1729, Yorke and Talbot, the Attorney-General and Solicitor-General of England, laid down the law relating to slaves brought from the West Indies into this country, in these words :—"We are of opinion that a slave, by coming from the West Indies into Great Britain or Ireland, either with or without his master, does not become free, and that his master's right and property in him is not thereby determined or varied, and that baptism does not bestow freedom on him, nor make any alteration in his temporal condition in these kingdoms. We are also of opinion that the master may legally compel him to return again to the Plantations."

Thirty-six years later, a brutal merchant in Wapping belaboured his wretched slave, Jonathan Strong, over the head and face with the butt-end of a horse-pistol, and when he became seriously ill, turned him out into the street to die. Granville Sharp took pity upon the poor slave, nursed him back to health, and promised him protection. But one day the brutal merchant caught sight of him, robust and happy, seized him, and cast him into prison to await shipment to the West Indies. But Granville Sharp was on the alert; he went to the Lord Mayor for redress, as the man had been imprisoned without a warrant, and brought him before the Court, when he was ordered to be released. "Then I claim him as my slave," said the Captain to whose "care" he had been committed, laying hold of him. Granville Sharp, however, was not to be outwitted; he sprang up in the presence of the Lord Mayor and, turning to the claimant, said, "I charge you in the name of the King with an assault upon the person of Jonathan Strong, and all these are my witnesses." The result was that the Captain was intimidated, and let his prisoner go, leaving him to be taken away by his protector.

WILLIAM WILBERFORCE.

Never before had an Englishman stood forth in any Court of Justice as the champion of a slave, and from that time Sharp determined that he would not relax his efforts to obtain an alteration of so unjust a law. He searched every statute in the English law books, and found that there was nothing to justify slavery: he published a work "On the Injustice of Tolerating Slavery in England," and sent a copy to every eminent lawyer in the land. A splendid man was Granville Sharp. It was he who brought to trial the question whether slavery could exist in England; it was he who instituted the Society for the Abolition of the Slave Trade (composed principally of Quakers), and it was he who brought an action against a slave-trader, who tried to force

his runaway slave to return to Jamaica, and the case was tried and finally referred, as a question of law, to the twelve judges. Lord Mansfield, who, in a former case, had decided in favour of a trader, was so impressed by the arguments of Sharp, that he set the slave at liberty, and declared, in May, 1772, that the law of England was, "As soon as a slave sets foot on English territory he becomes free;" or, as Curran, in his burning eloquence, expressed it, "It is established as the spirit of the British law, that liberty is inseparable from British soil; that no matter in what language the man's doom may have been pronounced, no matter what complexion incompatible with freedom an Indian or an African sun may have burnt upon him, no matter in what disastrous battle his liberties may have been cloven down, no matter with what solemnities he may have been devoted upon the altar of slavery, the first moment he touches the sacred soil of Britain, the altar and the god sink together in the dust."

PITT AND WILBERFORCE AT HOLWOOD PARK.

Granville Sharp's noble example was followed by Thomas Clarkson, who wrote a Latin prize essay on the subject proposed by Dr. Peckard, the Vice-Chancellor of the University of Cambridge, "Is it right to make slaves of others against their will?" From that time forth Clarkson gave up his life to the cause of the African slave, and entered into cordial relations with the Quaker fraternity, Dr. Porteus, Bishop of London, Hannah More, Zachary Macaulay, and most of those who composed the "Clapham Sect."

One who read Clarkson's essay, and afterwards became well acquainted with him, was the great philanthropist, William Wilberforce, who warmly espoused the cause, and while visiting Pitt at his delightful residence in Kent, wandered with him into the beautiful park at Holwood, near Bromley, and then and there gave notice of his intention to bring the subject forward in the House of Commons. A stone seat, erected by the Earl of Stanhope, still marks the spot made memorable by this event.

Says a well-known lecturer, "The resolution was made in the open-air 'at the foot of a large tree at Holwood, just before the steep descent into the valley of Keston,' in Kent. You will forgive the weakness, if you think it one, which is thus minute in its mention of the spot where so high a purpose was formed. If Runnymead is not forgotten, if Iona is a sacred name, if the blood flows fleeter in the veins as we tread that field among the Belgian dykes which men call Waterloo, if Marathon is a holy shrine beaten by the pilgrim's feet of the world, why should not the old oak at Holwood be remembered, where a brave heart resolved to do battle with a foul wrong, and to cancel the shame of ages by loosing the shackles from the slave?" *

On the 12th of May, 1789, Wilberforce brought the subject before the House, and his speech on that occasion was of so masterly a nature that Burke said "The House, the Nation, and Europe were under serious obligations to the honourable gentleman for having brought forward the subject in a manner the most masterly, impressive, and eloquent. . . . It equalled anything he had heard in modern times, and was not, perhaps, to be surpassed in the remains of Grecian eloquence." Pitt and Fox, in eloquent language, supported the resolutions, and all England rang with applause. A long and toilsome task, however, was still before the great reformer. He was urged on by the churches, and especially by the Evangelicals. The dying John Wesley, supported on pillows, wrote to him, "Unless the Divine Power has raised you up to be as Athanasius, *contra mundum*, I see not how you can go through your glorious enterprise, in opposing that execrable villainy, which is the scandal of religion, of England, and of human nature. . . . Go on, in the name of God, and in the power of His might, till even American slavery, the vilest that ever saw the sun, shall vanish away before it."

In the vote on the first introduction of the Bill in Parliament the abolitionists were in a minority of eighty-eight to one hundred and sixty-three. The lost Bill, introduced in 1791, was to prevent the further importation of slaves; in 1792 Wilberforce carried a motion to gradually reduce the slave trade. Again and again, the measure for the abolition of the slave trade was brought forward, and was bitterly opposed or quietly shelved. On one such occasion Wilberforce declaimed against shelving the measure. "There is something," he said, "not a little provoking in the dry, calm way in which gentlemen are apt to speak of the sufferings of others. The question suspended? Is the desolation of wretched Africa suspended? Are all the complicated miseries of this atrocious trade—is the work of death suspended? No, Sir, I will not delay this motion, and I call upon the House not to insult the forbearance of Heaven by delaying this tardy act of justice."

Nevertheless, it was delayed, and among those who opposed the act of justice, were the King, the Prince of Wales, and the Duke of Clarence. The latter said, after the Bill had been read the third time in the Commons: "Since a very early period of his life, when he was in another line of profession—which he knew not why he had no longer employment in—he had ocular demonstration of the state of slavery, as it was called, in the West Indies and all that he had seen convinced him that it was not deserving of the imputations that had been cast upon it; but that the abolition of it would be productive of extreme danger and mischief." And the Bill was lost for that year. But by perseverance, and all the other aids to success which come from the persistent conduct of men determined to put an end to tyrrany and wrong, victory came at last. In 1807, the abolition of the slave trade became a Government measure and it was carried by two hundred and eighty-three votes against sixteen. It was the last act of the Grenville

* Rev. W. Morley Punshon, M.A.

Ministry, the last great effort in which the sympathies of Charles James Fox were engaged, and the slave trade came to an end after an uninterrupted struggle of twenty years.

Sir Samuel Romilly, during the passage of the Bill, paid a glowing tribute to the heroic example of Wilberforce, which so stirred the whole House that, forgetful of its ordinary habits, it burst forth into prolonged acclamations "such as was scarcely ever given," says Bishop Porteus, "to any man sitting in his place in either House of Parliament."

Unbounded was the joy, and devout the thanksgiving when the victory came, and no one shared in it with a holier enthusiasm than the grey-haired Granville Sharp, the first labourer in the cause in England, and Thomas Clarkson, without whose persistent labours on the Committee the battle would never have been won. To him Wordsworth addressed a sonnet, concluding thus :—

With unabating effort, see, the palm
Is won, and by all nations shall be worn!
The bloody writing is for ever torn,
And thou henceforth shalt have a good man's calm,
A great man's happiness; thy zeal shall find
Repose at length, firm friend of human kind.*

Although the slave-*trade* was abolished, the importation of fresh slaves forbidden, and the slave-ship classed with that of the pirate, *Slavery*, as such, was not touched, and in our West Indian Colonies, there were at least from seven hundred thousand to eight hundred thousand British subjects inheriting the lash and the fetter.

It was now determined to gather up all the gains of the first victory, and to make a determined effort to crush slavery itself. The noble Wilberforce was getting old and unable to engage in this fresh crusade and he committed the leadership of the anti-slavery cause to his friend Thomas Fowell Buxton, a manly, practical philanthropist who took up the charge bequeathed to him with pluck and perseverance. In his first speech in the House upon the subject, he said: "The object at which we aim is the *extinction of slavery*—nothing less than the extinction of slavery, in nothing less than the whole of the British dominions."

We cannot pause to tell of the horrors either of the slave trade or of slavery; the capture of the slaves and their weary marches through the desert to the coast; the cruel ingenuity invented to make the sorrows of the poor wretches intolerable; the brutality of the masters; the horrors of the "middle passage;" the heartrending scenes of the slave-market.

It was to destroy these enormities that Buxton set his hand, and for ten years he never relaxed his efforts. He attended public meetings to arouse enthusiasm; at a meeting in Edinburgh a petition for immediate emancipation was signed by twenty-two thousand persons. On another occasion a petition from the women of Great Britain was signed in less than ten days by one hundred and eighty-seven thousand persons, the petition requiring the hard work of four stalwart men to bring it to the table of the House, amidst laughter and cheers. On the 7th of August, 1833, the Bill for the total abolition of Colonial slavery passed the House of Commons, and on the 28th of August received the Royal Assent, the enormous sum of twenty millions of pounds sterling having been voted by the British nation as the cost of purchasing the freedom of the seven hundred thousand slaves who groaned under the lash of the oppressor.

*Sonnets dedicated to Liberty.

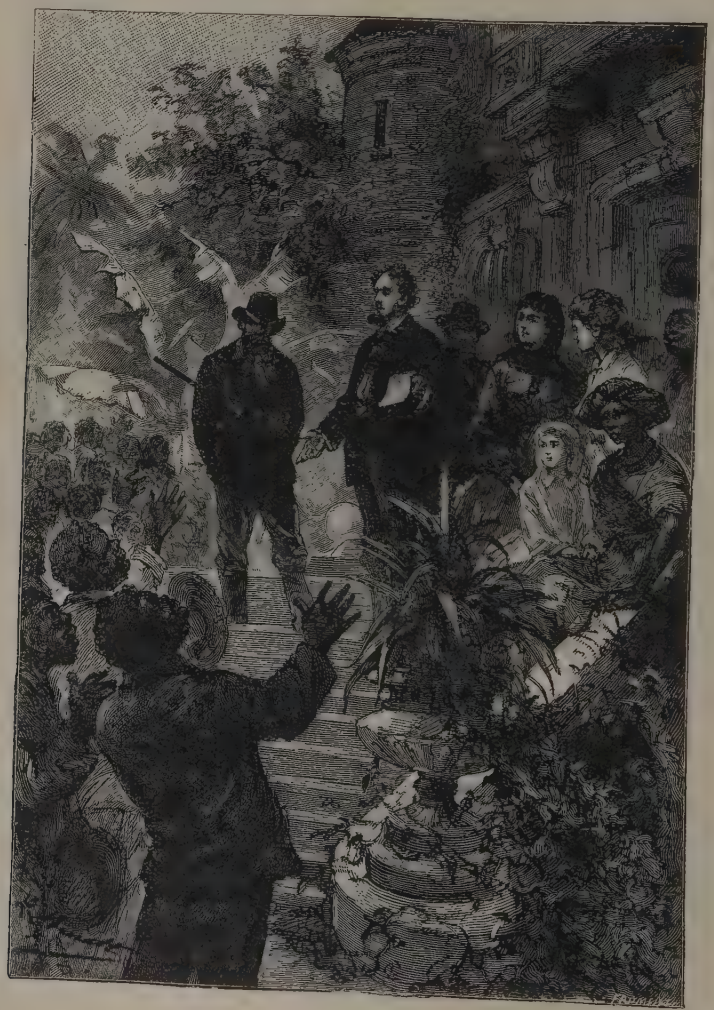
ABOLITION OF THE SLAVE TRADE. *After Haydon.*

Meeting of Delegates at Freemasons' Tavern, June, 1840. Thomas Clarkson, President.

The emancipation took place on the 1st of August, 1834. "Throughout the Colonies the churches and chapels were thrown open, and the slaves crowded into them on the evening of the 31st of July. As the hour of midnight approached they fell upon their knees and awaited the solemn moment, all hushed in silent prayer. When twelve sounded from the chapel bells they sprang upon their feet, and through every island rang the glad sound of thanksgiving to the Father of all; for the chains were broken and the slaves were free!"

And from that hour Great Britain has had no interest direct or indirect in the slave trade or slavery.

Of the "Society for the Extinction of the Slave Trade and for the civilisation of Africa," we shall write in subsequent pages.



FREEDOM AT LAST!

CHAPTER XI.

THE GREAT EUROPEAN STRUGGLE.

THE Grenville Ministry, after the death of Fox (1806), soon fell to pieces, and it was the King who wrought its destruction. The cause was a desire on the part of the Ministry to allow English Catholics to serve in the army, with rights similar to those allowed to the Irish Catholics, namely, to hold rank up to that of Colonel. The King was as obstinate as he was over Catholic Emancipation, and threatened resignation. Said Sheridan on the whole affair, "I have known of people knocking out their brains against a wall, but never knew any one before build up a wall expressly for the purpose."

The King dismissed the Ministry, and the Duke of Portland succeeded in forming an administration, with George Canning as Foreign Secretary, Lord Castlereagh as Secretary of War, and Spencer Perceval as Chancellor of the Exchequer. From this time to the end of the great European struggle England was entirely governed by the Tories.

The triumph at Austerlitz inflated Napoleon with the lust of conquest; he was carrying everything before him on the Continent, and now his one great object was to combine all Europe against England. On the 14th of October, 1806, he crushed the power of Prussia at the Battle of Jena, and on the 25th he entered Berlin in triumph, where he issued his infamous Berlin Decree for the ruin of England through her trade. He declared the British Islands in a state of blockade, threatened punishment to all persons who traded, or held any sort of intercourse, with any of the British nation; ordered that all English goods or manufactures found on French territory should be confiscated, and ordained that all English men and women found in France should be made captive—a "very large order," as the modern Englishman would express it.

This "Continental system," as it was called, he required all Europe to assist him to enforce; but it was impossible that such a system could exist for long. An enormous smuggling trade sprang up, at which Napoleon was the first to wink, and it is said that when he marched against the Russians at Eylau, his army was clothed in great coats made at Leeds, and shod with shoes made at Northampton. England's reply to the Decree was to issue an Order in Council declaring all the ports of France and her allies under blockade, and that any neutral vessels trading between them were to be prizes.

There were at this time only two great powers to oppose the victorious career of Napoleon, Russia and England, and early in 1807, with a force of one hundred thousand men he advanced to the Vistula, to try his strength with Russia, and the Battle of Eylau ensued—the bloodiest and most desperately contested that had been fought since the rise of Napoleon. It ended in a doubtful victory, but fifty thousand men were left dead or dying in the snow. A few months later, however, he completely defeated the Russians at Friedland, a short distance from Eylau, who retired from the field weakened by terrible slaughter, and soon afterwards negotiations for peace were opened.

On the 25th of June Napoleon met Alexander I, the Emperor of Russia, and Frederick William III., King of Prussia, at the town of Tilsit; then, "as if the conference

was too shameful to be overheard," the two Emperors withdrew to a raft moored mid-stream in the Niemen and sumptuously appointed, and there concocted as much villainy as any two men could devise in the space of two hours. By the Treaty of Tilsit Russia agreed to obey the Berlin Decree and exclude all English trade from her ports; Austria, Prussia, Sweden, Denmark, and Portugal were required to do the same; Prussia was deprived of all territory between the Rhine and the Elbe, and was required to give up her Polish possessions, to reduce her army to forty thousand, and to pay six millions sterling to France, who was to hold her chief fortresses until the debt was paid.

THE MEETING ON A RAFT.

As soon as England got an inkling of this treaty, George Canning, the guiding spirit of the ministry, the "breadth and vigour of whose mind gave a new energy and colour to the war," determined to anticipate the threatened blow, and demanded the surrender of the Danish fleet on a pledge that it should be given back at the close of the war. The Danes naturally refused, whereupon (July, 1807), a powerful expedition sailed from Yarmouth to Copenhagen, to attack them by land and sea. The fleet consisted of twenty-five sail of the line, forty smaller war vessels, and four hundred transports, carrying nearly thirty thousand troops, siege artillery, and stores. Admiral Gambier commanded the fleet, and Lord Cathcart the land forces.

After Copenhagen had been bombarded for four days by sea and land, the Danish Court was constrained to submit to the demands of the British, and the fleet was removed to England, while the indignant people were roused to a state of fury, and could scarcely be prevented avenging the national insult, even in the presence of a far superior force. It was only upon the questionable axiom that "all is fair in love and war," that this enterprise could be in any way justified.

Napoleon's rage knew no bounds, and he issued a further decree, called the Milan Decree, declaring that vessels of any nation submitting to the English Order in Council should be lawful prizes. The whole matter was involved in much commercial difficulty, and eventually led us to a war with America.

Portugal, alone, of all the countries of Europe, disregarded his Berlin Decree; this called forth his venomous wrath. In combination with the weak and indolent Charles IV. of Spain, his abandoned wife, and his infamous minister, Godoy (the practical rulers), a treaty was made for the partition of Portugal between France and Spain. Portugal had long been the faithful ally of England, and now, helpless, was forced to place herself in an attitude of hostility to us. It was an easy thing for the intriguing Napoleon to get the weak old King of Spain to join in his plan of annexing Portugal, and it was equally easy for him to cast the old King adrift and make his own brother, Joseph Bonaparte, King of Spain.

Orders were given for the forces of France and Spain at once to invade Portugal, and Napoleon tersely announced to the world "The House of Braganza has ceased to reign!" Then, with his usual arrogance and deception, he turned against Spain, and the ever-memorable Peninsular War began.

It is well to remember that at this time Napoleon was all-powerful; the world was at his feet, and the thrones of Europe were occupied by his relatives and friends. His brother, Joseph Bonaparte, who had been King of Naples, was now King of Spain. Holland had been changed into a monarchy, and its crown bestowed on his brother Louis. Westphalia (a union of the Electorates of Hesse Cassel and Hanover) was set up as a kingdom, over which his brother Jerome ruled; Lucien would have had a crown but for his republican opinions; his sister's husband, Murat, the son of an inn-keeper, became King of Naples; "the principality of Lucca was bestowed upon his eldest sister, Eliza. Pauline received the principality of Guastalla; his adopted son, Eugene, married the daughter of the King of Bavaria. Josephine's niece became Princess of Baden. Bernadotte, one of his marshals, the son of a lawyer, accepted the crown of Sweden. Napoleon impressed it upon all these subsidiary monarchs that their first duty was to him, their next to France."

In this state of affairs the English Parliament met on the 21st of June, 1808, and was opened by Commission. The King's speech gives a good insight into the state of Europe at that time, and we, therefore, append a few extracts.

The King informed Parliament "that no sooner had the result of the negotiations at Tilsit confirmed the influence and control of France over the Powers of the Continent, than His Majesty was apprised of the intention of the enemy to combine those Powers in one general Confederacy, to be directed either to the entire subjugation of this kingdom, or to the imposing upon His Majesty an insecure and ignominious peace. That for this purpose, it was determined to force into hostility against His Majesty, States which had hitherto been allowed by France to maintain, or to purchase, their neutrality, and to bring to bear against different points of His Majesty's dominions the whole of the naval force of Europe, and specifically the fleets of Portugal and

Denmark. To place these fleets out of the power of such a confederacy became, therefore, the indispensable duty of His Majesty.

"In the execution of this duty, so far as related to the Danish fleet, His Majesty has commanded us to assure you, that it was with the deepest reluctance that His Majesty found himself, after his earnest endeavours to open a negotiation with the Danish Government had failed, compelled to authorise his Commanders to resort to the extremity of force, but that he has the greatest satisfaction in congratulating you upon the successful execution of this painful but necessary service.

"We are commanded further to acquaint you that the course which His Majesty had to pursue with respect to Portugal, was, happily, of a nature more congenial to His Majesty's feelings. That the timely and unreserved communication, by the Court of Lisbon, of the demands and designs of France, while it confirmed to His Majesty the authenticity of the advices which he had received from other quarters, entitled that Court to His Majesty's confidence in the sincerity of the assurances by which that communication was accompanied. The fleet of Portugal was destined by France to be employed as an instrument of vengeance against Great Britain; that fleet has been secured from the grasp of France, and is now employed in conveying to its American dominions the hopes and fortunes of the Portugese Monarchy.* His Majesty implores the protection of Divine Providence upon that enterprise, rejoicing in the preservation of a Power so long the friend and ally of Great Britain, and in the prospect of its establishment in the New World with augmented strength and splendour.

"We have it in command from His Majesty to inform you that the determination of the enemy to excite hostilities between His Majesty and his late Allies, the Emperors of Russia and Austria and the King of Prussia, has been but too successful, and that the Ministers from those powers have demanded, and received, their passports. This measure, on the part of Russia, has been attempted to be justified by a statement of wrongs and grievances which have no real foundation. The Emperor of Russia had, indeed, proffered his mediation between His Majesty and France; His Majesty did not refuse that mediation; but he is confident you will feel the propriety of its not having been accepted, until His Majesty should have been able to ascertain that Russia was in a condition to mediate impartially, and, until the principles and the basis on which France was ready to negotiate, were made known to His Majesty. No pretence of justification has been alleged for the hostile conduct of the Emperor of Austria, or for that of His Prussian Majesty. His Majesty has not given the slightest ground of complaint to either of these sovereigns, nor even at the moment when they have respectively withdrawn their Ministers, have they assigned to His Majesty any distinct cause for that proceeding."

The King then proceeded to congratulate his people on "still retaining the friendship of the Porte and the King of Sweden and that he had concluded a Treaty of Amity, Commerce, and Navigation, with the United States of America."

This was a poor set off against the powerful European Confederation. "Virtually England was single-handed to fight the world." But she was ready.

The King's speech ended with the pleasing statement that the revenue of the country was in such a healthy and prosperous state that he confidently hoped, even in view of approaching wars, that it would be unnecessary to make material additions to the public burdens in the way of taxation.

* The King of Portugal and his family fled to the Brazils, protected by a British squadron, November 29th, 1807.

Hitherto our struggle against Napoleon had been chiefly on sea, now it was to be on land and on the 1st of August, 1808, a small army of thirteen thousand men under the command of Sir Arthur Wellesley, the hero of the Mysore and Mahratta Wars, landed at Corunna in Spain and went thence to meet the fleet at Mondego on the coast of Portugal. Before him were six years of arduous war almost unparalleled; a career whose memory can never be blotted out; and a military reputation, second only to that of Napoleon himself.

His plan for the campaign was, at the first, to hold on to the sea coast in order to make sure of his supplies; to cover the landing of the expected reinforcement from England, to keep his troops well together in a mass, and to strike his first blow near Lisbon where he knew the ground well.

The first battle of the Peninsular war was fought on the 17th of August at Roriça, about fifty miles north east of Lisbon, and although the French, who had been taught to despise the English as soldiers, offered a stout resistance, they were beaten and forced to retreat. Wellesley—or Wellington as we shall henceforth call him, although he did not become a Duke till some years later — retired to Vimeira. Here, on the 21st of August, he encountered the French Marshal Junot, who showed great courage but little talent, and suffered a complete defeat.

SALAMANCA. *R. K. Porter.*

At this time Wellington was not Commander-in-Chief; he was serving as the junior of six Generals of Division;—Lieutenant-General Sir Hugh Dalrymple, Commander-in-Chief; Lieutenant-General Sir Harry Burrard, Second in Command. Lieutenant-Generals Sir John Moore, the Hon. Alexander Hope, Mackenzie-Fraser, and Lord Paget were all in command of Divisions, and all took precedence of Wellington.

At the Battle of Vimeira, east of Lisbon, Sir Harry Burrard, a very incompetent officer, intervened, took the command, and stopped Wellington from pursuing the French and cutting them off from Lisbon. Two days later Sir Hugh Dalrymple superseded Burrard, and when Junot offered to evacuate Portugal, both these Generals acquiesced, and the Convention of Cintra was foolishly signed when the enemy was within their power. By this Convention Junot was to give up Portugal if his whole army and its arms were shipped over to France at the expense of England. The upshot of this in England was the institution of a Court of Inquiry; the King sent to Sir Hugh Dalrymple a formal declaration of his disapproval of the whole proceeding Dalrymple and Burrard were recalled, and Wellington, who objected to the proposals as strongly as

the King, was sent back to resume his duties as Irish Secretary, but exonerated from all blame.

Napoleon, stung by the defeat of Vimeira, poured fresh masses of troops into Spain, and charged them thus :—"Without a moment of repose, I bid you traverse France. The hideous presence of the Leopard contaminates the Peninsula; in terror he must fly before you. Let us bear our triumphant eagles to the pillars of Hercules. A real Frenchman ought not to rest until the English are driven into the sea."

Sir John Moore had in the meantime advanced with twenty-five thousand men from Lisbon to Salamanca to support the Spanish arms. Napoleon himself was present in Spain, and three hundred thousand of his troops were scattered over the country. Sir John, as soon as he knew his peril, beat a retreat, making his way as best he could over terrible roads towards his ships. To his dismay, the ships were not there, and no resource was left to him but to turn towards Corunna, where he fought against Soult, like a lion at bay, until a cannon ball threw him off his horse and mortally wounded him. He lay on the ground, covered by his military cloak, watching the battle and refusing to be carried to the rear until certain of English success. Then he said, "I hope the people of England will be satisfied, and that my country will do me justice;" and died. He was buried on the night of his victory on the earth-works of Corunna, and Soult, with true chivalry, raised a monument on the spot. His truest monument, however, is in the literature of his country, and every one is familiar with the lines written by the Rev. Charles Wolfe :—

R. K. Porter.

CASTLE OF BENEVENTE.
Held by Sir John Moore on his retreat to Corunna, 1808.

Not a drum was heard, not a funeral note,
As his corse to the rampart we hurried;
Not a soldier discharged his farewell shot
O'er the grave where our hero we buried.

No useless coffin enclosed his breast,
Not in sheet nor in shroud we wound him;
But he lay like a warrior taking his rest,
With his martial cloak around him.

His country did not do him justice, and when the shattered remains of his splendid force returned home, almost all England thought that it was hopeless to risk human life in further resisting Napoleon, except on the sea.

While Napoleon was pursuing Moore towards Corunna, news reached him that Austria had taken up arms, and gathering together an enormous force, within a month

from the opening of the campaign, he entered Vienna in triumph. Soon after this, the great battle of Wagram was fought, and the power of Austria was crushed.

We may digress here for a moment to trace the movements of the man who was now more masterful than ever over the Continent of Europe.

BURIAL OF SIR JOHN MOORE.

He was in the zenith of his power. His conquests had made nearly all the sovereigns of Europe suppliants for his favour. Austria had long held out, but the terrible defeat at Wagram had brought her, too, into subjection. It seemed that everything that could satisfy his ambition was his. But there was one thing lacking. His wife had no royal blood in her veins, and he had no child to inherit his imperial throne. The French themselves were uneasy at the prospects of their country in the event of the Emperor dying without issue. On the 26th of October, 1809, Napoleon stated his views to Cambacérès, his Chancellor. "He loved that old companion of his life, Josephine," says M. Thiers, "though he was not scrupulously faithful to her, and it wrung his heart to part from her; but, as his popularity declined," though not his power, "he liked to suppose that it was not his fault, but the want of a future, which menaced

his glorious throne with premature decay. To consolidate what he felt trembling under his feet was his engrossing thought; if a new wife were chosen, obtained, placed in the Tuileries and became the mother of a male heir, the faults which had set all the world against him might, perchance, be disarmed of their consequences. It was well, no doubt, to have an indisputable heir; but better, a hundredfold, would it have been to be prudent and wise! However this may be, Napoleon, who, notwithstanding his want of a son, at the zenith of his glory and power after Tilsit, had been unable to bring himself to sacrifice Josephine, now at last resolved to do so, because he felt the Empire shaken, and was about to seek, in a new marriage, the security which he ought to have derived from an able and moderate course of conduct."*

THE ANNOUNCEMENT OF DIVORCE.
Napoleon, Beausset, and Josephine.

Cambacérès ventured to urge that the proceeding was in various ways objectionable; but Napoleon haughtily silenced him. The Emperor had long before secretly sounded Alexander concerning an alliance with the House of Russia. On the 9th of December, at a painful interview between Napoleon, Josephine, and her son and daughter by her

* "History of the Consulate and the Empire," Vol II., Book xxxvii.

first marriage, the separation was agreed upon; the inflexible will of the Emperor overbearing all opposition. On the 15th the civil contract of marriage was formally dissolved in the presence of most of the Emperor's relations, and a conclave of obsequious bishops soon after found argument for annulling the spiritual or religious marriage.

Meanwhile negotiations were going on between Napoleon and Alexander for the marriage of the former to the Princess Anna of Russia, the Emperor Alexander's sister. Austria and Saxony had each thrown out hints that an alliance with the great military conqueror would be acceptable; but as there was some hesitation on the part of Russia, Napoleon suddenly changed his plan, and on the 5th of February, 1810, demanded in marriage the youthful Archduchess, Maria Louisa of Austria. The demand was eagerly responded to by the Court of Vienna, and the lady herself seems to have urged no objection. M. Thiers states that the Emperor Francis II., delighted at the prospect, nevertheless desired that the wishes of his daughter should be considered, and sent M. Metternich to tell her the news.

"The young princess was eighteen, of a good figure, excellent health, and of a fair German complexion. She had been carefully educated, had some talent, and a placid temper; in short the qualities desirable in a mother. She was surprised and pleased—far from being dismayed—at going into that France, where, but lately, the revolutionary monster devoured Kings; and where a conqueror, now mastering the revolutionary monster, made Kings tremble in his turn. She accepted with becoming reserve, but with much delight, the brilliant lot offered her. She consented to become the consort of Napoleon, and mother to the heir of the greatest empire in the world." *

A marriage by proxy took place in Vienna on the 11th of March; a civil marriage at St. Cloud on the 1st of April; and a final religious marriage at the Tuileries on the 2nd.

In 1811 a son was born, who was made King of Rome, Napoleon in the previous year having seized the Pope's dominions (the States of the Church), and sent the Pope, Pius VII., into imprisonment at Avignon.

Before returning to Wellington and the Peninsula, two events must be referred to here. The war against France was being carried on in different quarters, and by sea and land. Lord Cochrane, afterwards Earl of Dundonald, one of the bravest and most daring of all our naval heroes, was serving under Admiral Gambier, when, in the spring of 1809, he destroyed a considerable part of the French fleet off Rochefort; four ships of the line were taken and blown up at their anchorage, and seven more ran ashore, and were either destroyed or wholly disabled. The French "had placed a boom in front of their line for a defence, but the British ships, coming down with all their weight under favour of a strong north wind and a flood tide, broke through the boom, and carried all before them. Only ten lives were lost on the British side in this action, while the prisoners taken were several hundreds." †

The other event was the disastrous Walcheren Expedition, sent out to frustrate Napoleon's plan of turning Antwerp and Flushing into naval arsenals in readiness for any opportunity that might occur to make a descent upon England. Everything connected with the expedition was ill-advised; the swamps of the Scheldt were very unhealthy, and no proper provision was made for a medical staff or hospital accommodation; the men could be ill-spared as more important operations were

* Thiers.

†Martineau's History 1800-1815.

pending; the military command was given to the second Earl of Chatham, whose sole recommendation was that he was brother to Mr. Pitt, the son, and exact image, of his father, and a favourite with the King. The splendid fleet of two hundred and forty-five vessels of war and four hundred transports, conveying forty thousand soldiers was under the command of Sir Richard Strachan, Admiral Otway, and Lord Gardner; but the instructions given to the Commanders of the land and sea forces respectively were so vague that no one understood his exact position.

The fleet sailed in all its pride and glory on the 28th of July (1809), and although its destination was at first kept a profound secret, it soon leaked out that Vlissingen, or Flushing, in the Island of Walcheren, which lies at the mouth of the Scheldt, was the point aimed at. Middleburgh surrendered to the English on the 2nd of August, and on the 15th, after a fearful bombardment, the town of Flushing also surrendered. Unfortunately, all action was then delayed, of which the French took advantage by securing the neighbouring fortresses; fever had broken out among the troops and three thousand men were in hospital with a very inadequate supply of food and other necessaries. It was not until the 27th of August that Sir Richard Strachan waited upon the Earl of Chatham to learn what steps he proposed to take next, when he was told that "it was not advisable to pursue further operations."

There are many versions of the well-known but anonymous epigram—

"Lord Chatham with his sword undrawn,
Stood waiting for Sir Richard Strachan;
Sir Richard, waiting to be at 'em,
Stood waiting for the Earl of Chatham."

The fever spread with such rapidity that at one time eleven thousand men were down with it and hundreds a day died. Chatham returned to England, taking as many of the stricken with him as he could. Walcheren was evacuated; by the end of the year, half the forces, sent out five months before, were dead or missing. The expedition cost twenty millions sterling, and the loss of tens of thousands of lives; it removed George Canning from the Government, and it caused the Portland Ministry to be remodelled.

To return now to the Peninsular War. There was contention in Parliament as to its continuance; the Opposition affirming that Napoleon was invincible by land and that ultimate success was impossible. Wellington on the contrary, took this view, "I have always been of opinion that Portugal might be defended whatever might be the result of the contest in Spain," and Lord Castlereagh prevailed upon his colleagues to appoint the destined victor to the chief command in the Peninsula, just when Napoleon, who had been drawn off to Austria, believed the war to be at an end.

Wellington arrived in Lisbon on the 22nd of April, 1809. Soult was on his north at Oporto with twenty thousand men, and Wellington, heading about twenty-five thousand men, including Portugese troops commanded by Lord Beresford, boldly advanced against them. The British forces marched more than eighty miles in four days, and, driving the French before them, reached the River Douro on the 12th of May to find that the bridge had been destroyed on the previous night. Soult naturally believed himself to be secure for the moment, and prepared for a retreat. It would hardly have occurred to any General but Wellington to attempt the passage of a river three hundred yards wide, in the face of an almost equal enemy. But he did it.

The result of this most brilliant operation was the loss of a large proportion of Soult's army, with all his guns and baggage, in his retreat across the mountains towards Orense: Beresford having, in ably carrying out the views of his chief, defeated Loison, and cut off Soult's line of retreat by Amaranti.*

ENGLISH HOSPITAL AND CONVENT OF ALMEIDA.
After a Contemporary Painting.

Moving southward, Marshal Victor and King Joseph determined to attack Wellington and the Spaniards, under the incompetent old General Cuesta.† They met at Talavera, a town on the Tagus, and fought a two days' battle; the French were driven back in hopeless confusion until they retreated under cover of darkness, with the loss of seven thousand men. It was a glorious victory; it restored the prestige of the British troops, and Sir Arthur Wellesley was created Viscount Wellington of Talavera.

He could not, at that time, follow up his victory, so he retired into the mountains, and thence to Almeida, in Portugal, determined not to trust any more to Spanish help,

TORRES VEDRAS FROM THE NORTH-WEST. *Rev. Mr. Bradford.*

which could not afford the required co-operation, and would not even furnish the indispensable supplies.

* *Quarterly Review*, Vol. 122.

† It may be pointed out here that there were independent Spaniards who would not recognise Joseph as King.

Napoleon now poured fresh reinforcements into the Peninsula, until, in the spring of 1810, nine corps, comprising three hundred and eighty thousand men, were collected under his most trusted Commanders, and these forces, he thought, would be sufficient at once to overawe the Spaniards, and to drive the thirty thousand men of the English Leopard into the sea. The latter duty was confided to Massena, his best Marshal, whose army of Portugal was to consist of one hundred thousand men, and of whom Wellington afterwards said, when questioned as to the relative merits of his opponents, "I only know this; I always found Massena where I did not want him." Massena, after taking the Spanish Fortress of Ciudad Rodrigo, invaded Portugal at Almeida, and met Wellington at the Battle of Busaco, at whose hands he suffered a disastrous defeat, retreating with a loss of five thousand men.

As winter approached, Wellington retired within the famous lines of Torres Vedras. These celebrated lines were constructed across the Peninsula, bounded by the Tagus and the sea, to the north of Lisbon. The first line, about thirty miles long, stretched across

BADAJOZ *Henry Smith.*

an irregular chain of hills about fifty miles from Lisbon. The second and stronger line, ten miles at its greatest distance behind the first, and connected with it halfway between Mafra and Sobral, was twenty-four miles long. Each of these lines was a series of forts and redoubts, mounted with more than six hundred guns; roads were laid out so that support might be sent without difficulty from any one to any other part of the position, and a system of signal telegraphs was established, by which the earliest intelligence of attack and other necessary information might be afforded.

Great was the surprise of Massena when he came up to these formidable lines, and bitter was his disappointment when, after surveying them, he had to retreat without making any serious attack. It has been well said that "the foresight and genius of Wellington were never more splendidly shown than in the planning of this unwelcome surprise for Massena." It was the first step in the backward movement that, in the end, was fatal to France.

The campaign of 1811 was opened by Wellington following in pursuit of Massena, who had retreated northward. Early in May the French Marshal, with his army

reinforced to forty-five thousand men, met Wellington with thirty-three thousand men at the Battle of Fuentes d'Onoro. The fight was long and critical, and was, at one time in the course of the struggle, nearly approaching to failure, when a tide came in its affairs and was taken in the flood. Wellington gained a decisive victory, drove back the enemy with the bayonet, and caused them to retreat with great loss. This led to the capture of the great fortress of Almeida, to which Massena was intending to convey provision for the garrison, and to the recall of the great French Marshal, Massena, and the appointment of Marmont as his successor.

Wellington had ordered the investment of Badajoz by Lord Beresford; but preliminary operations had scarcely commenced when Soult marched to its relief. Withdrawing his forces, Beresford went forth to meet the enemy, and the tremendous battle of Albuera was fought on the 16th of May. At first it seemed so much like defeat that Beresford was making preparations for a retreat when Lord Hardinge, with fresh troops, came to the rescue, and turned the tide of battle. It was a carnage scarcely equalled in military history; the mighty mass of the hostile army was driven, as by an avalanche, down the hill, and the remnant of the British stood victors at the top. Of six thousand who had mounted it, only fifteen hundred remained on their feet, and the dead and wounded lay heaped on the ridge. In four hours eight thousand French and nearly seven thousand of the Allies had been struck down. The distress was so fearful that no one seems to have been certain whether there was victory on either side until Soult made the matter clear by retreating to Seville, leaving the British to resume, although not at that time, the siege of Badajoz.*

One incident of the general war occurred on the 27th of October, reflecting credit on two noble men. On that date General Sir Rowland Hill achieved a great victory at Arroyo de Molinos, where he captured the French artillery and baggage, and thirteen hundred prisoners, with a loss of only seven killed and sixty wounded. Wellington entreated, as a kindness to himself, that "some mark of the Royal favour might be conferred upon Hill," urging that he was beloved by the whole army, and that there was no one to whom an act of grace or favour would be received with more satisfaction.

The Peninsula campaign of 1812 began early in the year, and continued as a series of successes. In January the mighty fortress of Ciudad Rodrigo was stormed, and, after a fierce resistance, was taken, at a loss to us of one hundred and seventy-eight regimental officers, with eight hundred and eighteen men. This splendid and, to some extent, unexpected victory determined Wellington to proceed at once to the siege and assault of Badajoz.

A more desperate service was never performed in war than the capture of Badajoz by assault. The garrison, strong in numbers, and still more formidable on account of its composition, was admirably handled throughout the siege; and everything which skill and resource could devise was applied to avert the catastrophe. The breaches were not only retrenched, but across them at the summit were drawn strong iron chains, bristling with bayonets and naked sword-blades. No man succeeded in forcing his way through that barrier, for behind it stood men who knocked on the head all who endeavoured to grasp the chain; and the attempt to bear it back by sheer strength only caused the cruel deaths of such as took part in it. But if the defence was skilful and brave, not less brave and skilful were the measures adopted to subdue it. Danger threatened the defenders from so many points at once, that those accounted the least assailable were partially neglected, and through them the besiegers made their way. When morning

* Martineau.

dawned, therefore, the breaches had become empty, and over them, mad with excitement, rushed the survivors from the late contest.*

"When" says Napier, "the extent of the night's havoc was made known to Lord Wellington, the firmness of his nature gave way for a moment, and the pride of conquest yielded to a passionate burst of grief for the loss of his gallant soldiers." The loss in this siege was very great; seventy-two officers, fifty-one sergeants and nine hundred and twelve rank and file were killed; three hundred and six officers, two hundred and sixteen sergeants and three thousand, seven hundred and eighty-seven rank and file were wounded. But to this mighty conquest the final issue of the Peninsula was mainly due.

In July some successful movements of General Hill prepared the way for Wellington's advance, and on the 22nd the great battle of Salamanca was fought, in

WELLINGTON ENTERS MADRID. *From a Contemporary Print.*

which the French lost six thousand killed or wounded, seven thousand prisoners, eleven guns, and two eagles. A French officer described this victory, as "the beating of forty thousand men in forty minutes." One of the last shots of the French pierced Wellington's holster and wounded him slightly in the thigh.† This battle was the most decisive which had been fought since the commencement of the war. The effect of the victory, which Soult termed 'a prodigious historical event' was felt over the whole of Europe. Napoleon, who was at the time on his fatal march to Moscow, heard of it with fear and trembling, while in Russia, Germany, and elsewhere, it inspired dreams of a deliverance near at hand. As for Wellington, his calm bearing on the evening of the

* Gleig's "Life of Wellington," page 155.

† Another narrow escape occurred to Wellington in this battle. Thirty or forty French horsemen detached themselves from their companions, and galloping over the brow just as Wellington was ascending the slope, perceived two guns escorted by a squadron of light cavalry. They hesitated a moment, and then charging, drove the English cavalry through the guns, and swept Lord Wellington, entangled in the mêlée, to the bottom of the hill. Lord Wellington and his staff, drawing their swords, with some difficulty extricated themselves from the mixed mass of friends and foes by which they were surrounded, and another squadron of British dragoons coming up, destroyed or captured almost to a man, the desperate band which had so nearly quenched the light of England's glory.—"Life of Lord Combermere," Vol. I., page 267.

victory, is well told by Napier. "I saw him late in the evening of that great day, when the advancing flashes of cannon and musketry, stretching as far as the eye could command, showed in the darkness how well the field was won; he was alone, the flush of victory was on his brow, and his eyes were eager and watchful, but his voice was calm and even gentle, more than the rival of Marlborough, since he had defeated greater warriors than Marlborough ever encountered, with a prescient pride he seemed only to accept this glory as an earnest of greater things."*

Wellington did not go unrewarded for these brilliant exploits. He had been created an Earl after the capture of Badajoz; he was now advanced to the dignity of a Marquis. Spain gave him the Dukedom of Ciudad Rodrigo, a knighthood of the Golden Fleece, and the rank of Generalissimo of her Armies; while Portugal conferred upon him the Marquisate of Torres Vedras, together with a palace in Lisbon.

On the 12th of August, Wellington entered Madrid in triumph, the British liberators being received by the citizens with every token of enthusiastic joy; the Retiro, the old Moorish Castle which dominates the city, made a short and feeble resistance and then surrendered at discretion, with its garrison of about two thousand men, one hundred and eighty-nine cannon, twenty thousand stand of arms and an immense quantity of ammunition and stores.

While the British were resting and rejoicing for seventeen days, the French were concentrating their forces, and Wellington found it necessary to retreat. After failing in his attack on Burgos, he succeeded, with much fatigue and peril, in retiring to the frontiers of Portugal, where, supported by the Fortresses of Ciudad Rodrigo and Almeida, he secured his Army in winter quarters.

In 1813, the Peninsular War was continued with even greater glory than in the previous years, and the fact that Napoleon was engaged in his Russian Campaign gave Wellington at length a superiority in numbers. In May, he marched for the last time from Portugal into Spain, driving the French before him. His seventy thousand men were burning with impatience to attack a foe whose continual flight had begun to inspire them with contempt; his brave Generals, Sir Rowland Hill and Sir Thomas Graham, were fired with fresh enthusiasm and Wellington himself was "going in to win."

On the 21st of June, the battle of Vittoria, which practically settled the issues of the Peninsular War, was fought, and ended in a complete victory. A total rout ensued, and an organised army became a wild and affrighted mob; the Allies pressed hard on their rear; the King, Joseph Bonaparte, himself with difficulty escaped out of the city by quitting his carriage and mounting a horse. "The spoils that were taken that day resembled those of an Oriental, rather than a European Army; for the intruder, who, in his miserable situation, had abondoned himself to every kind of sensuality, had with him all his luxuries; his plunder, wardrobe, sideboard, larder, and cellar, all fell into the hands of his conquerors: the French officers had followed his example; and thus the finest wines and choicest delicacies were found in profusion; the wives and mistresses also of these men had collected together in one house, where they were safe, and were sent with a flag of truce to Pampeluna; poodles, parrots, and monkeys being among the prisoners."

The victorious Wellington now determined to fight his way to the French frontier against Soult, who had been sent to arrest his progress. In marching forward to force the Pyrenees, he had to attack and defend a series of mountain defiles, where the cavalry could not act, and in positions to which artillery could not be brought, and this series of

* "Napier's Peninsular War," Vol. V., page 212.

BATTLE OF VITTORIA.

St. Clair.

engagements, known as the 'Battle of the Pyrenees,' was as harassing and distressing as any part of the campaign. But in the end, although sometimes at long odds, Soult was defeated and had to beat a retreat. "All the defiles of the Pyrenees," says Gleig, "rang with a continual fire of musketry. The French in full retreat, the English in hot pursuit, scaled craggs, plunged down ravines, and passed torrents. The loss to the fugitives was enormous. It amounted, throughout the operations, to fifteen thousand men; while on the side of the Allies, seven thousand three hundred were returned as killed, wounded and missing."

The war was now hastening to its close.

Pursuing his onward course, Wellington and his Generals besieged and afterwards stormed, San Sebastian and caused it to surrender. Pampeluna capitulated, and the course for the invasion of France was clear. At the Nivelle Wellington drove Soult, with great loss, from a strong position, which he had been fortifying after the example of the Lines of Torres Vedras; and at the battle of the Nive, with those splendid Generals, Hope, Hill, and Beresford, he drove the enemy towards Bayonne with a loss to Soult of ten

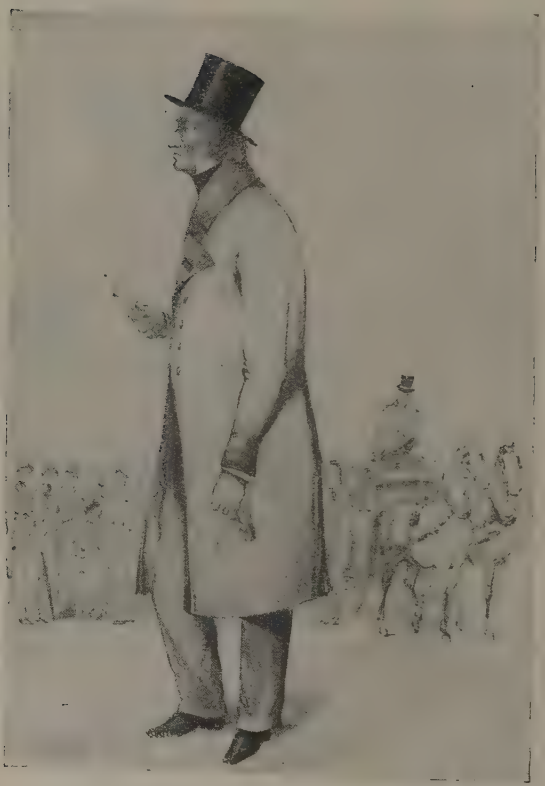
SAN SEBASTIAN

thousand men killed, wounded, and prisoners. This was followed by the further defeat of Soult among the crags of Orthez and he fell back before Wellington at Toulouse. It was the best point to which he could retire, but it did not serve his purpose.

Wellington "fought the battle of Toulouse upon a plan which, as much as possible, guarded the inhabitants from becoming more than spectators of the horrors of a war. Not a shot or shell from an English gun fell within the town. And now his arrangements were made for investing the place, so as to compel the French army either to come out and fight, or else to lay down its arms. His troops, indeed, had begun to move towards the single carriage road, of which they were not already masters, when daybreak on the 12th of April made the fact apparent that Soult and his people were gone! Not a picket guard stood to their arms, not a sentry showed himself, and presently, while men yet wondered what the cause of such unlooked-for silence might be, the silence was broken by the pealing of bells in the city. Suddenly upon every tower and house-top visible, a white flag was seen to wave, and, by-and-bye, the air rang with the shouts of people rejoicing, and the British troops were greeted as

they drew near, not as enemies, but as deliverers." Toulouse, freed from the presence of Napoleon's garrison, declared for Louis the XVIII., who had succeeded to the throne of France.

With the battle of Toulouse—which, if means of communication had been successful, should never have been fought, as peace had already been arranged—the great Peninsular war may be said to have come to an end.



G. B. Campion.

MARSHAL SOULT IN 1858.

CHAPTER XII.

THE KING AND HIS SONS.

APART from the extraordinary circumstances of war and general disaster that made the reign of George III. remarkable, his own personal career was such as rarely falls to the lot of men. Like most other Kings his life was the target for many assassins. One day (1786), as he was alighting from his carriage at St. James' Park, a poor mad woman, Margaret Nicholson, presented a paper to him, and, while he was receiving it, struck with a knife at his breast. At the time of the Revolutionary War (1795), when on his way to open the Session of Parliament, he was surrounded by a shrieking mob, crying "No King!" "Down with George!" Stones were thrown into his carriage, and a bullet, supposed to have been discharged from an air-gun, perforated the window. He never for an instant lost his natural coolness and intrepidity, and when he entered the House of Peers he merely said to the Chancellor, "My Lord, we have been shot at," and proceeded with his speech as if nothing unusual had occurred. On the return journey, he was again attacked, and would probably have fallen a victim to the infuriated mob but for the prompt action of a gentleman named Bedingfield, who, seeing the horses stopped and hearing the cry "Pull him out!" rushed forward, and, pointing a pistol at the ring-leaders, gave time for a rescue.

In 1800 his life was twice in danger in one day. In the morning, at a Review in Hyde Park, during the firing, a ball, no doubt intended for him, struck and severely wounded a gentleman standing only a few yards off; and on the evening of that same day, when he visited Drury Lane Theatre with the Queen and Princesses, and advanced to bow to the audience, a lunatic in the orchestra, named Hadfield, fired at him, and but for the promptness of a gentleman, who struck at the pistol, he would probably have perished, as the spent ball was found in the royal box. The King remained to the end of the performance unmoved.

Other acts directed against the King's person caused the Government to pass stringent measures for his safety, but on November 18th, 1802, all London was startled by the announcement of the discovery of a plot to assassinate him. Colonel Despard, who had been previously concerned in a seditious affair, and had spent some years in prison, was the head and front of the offending. He was charged with "having administered a secret oath to divers persons, binding them to an active co-operation in the performance of certain treasonable and murderous practices," and on the 5th of February he, with twelve others, was tried at the Sessions House at Clerkenwell, on eight counts, one charging them with "intending to lie in wait and attack the King, and treating of the time, means, and place for effecting the same."

Despard and nine of his companions were found guilty. The actual words used by the Judge in passing sentence were these:—"The only thing now remaining for me, is the painful task of pronouncing against you, and each of you, the awful sentence which the law denounces against your crime, which is that you, and each of you (naming the prisoners severally), be taken to the place from whence you came and from thence you are to be drawn on hurdles to the place of execution, where you are to be hanged by

the neck, but not until you are dead; for, while you are still living, your bodies are to be taken down, your bowels torn out and burnt before your faces; your heads are to be then cut off and your bodies divided each into four quarters, and your heads and quarters to be then at the King's disposal; and may the Almighty God have mercy on your souls!" This brutal sentence was not carried out in all its horrible detail, but on the 21st of February, 1803, Despard and six of his accomplices were hanged and afterwards beheaded.

The King's private troubles were greater than his public ones. He knew "how sharper than a serpent's tooth it is to have a thankless" pack of sons.

When Fox and his friends were installed in office (1782), the Prince of Wales was in his twentieth year and was a profligate, spendthrift, and libertine. Not only had he plunged into every kind of debauchery, but his conduct was unfilial in the extreme. To add to his other offences, he became very intimate with Fox, his senior by thirteen years, a man, whom the King hated for his well-known laxity of morals, and who felt that he could not do otherwise than corrupt still further the morals of the young Prince. To fill up the King's cup of misery at this time, when he was cut to the quick by the prospect of the dismemberment of the Empire, and the dissolution of his favourite Ministry, the Prince of Wales, under the influence of Fox, joined the ranks of the Opposition and publicly advocated the political opinions of his father's bitterest enemies.

Notwithstanding the large income voted to the Prince of Wales on coming of age, before he was three-and-twenty he had run so much into debt that the "little bills" he owed amounted to £160,000.

MRS. FITZHERBERT.

Then Mrs. Fitzherbert came on the scene. She was a widow for the second time and twenty-nine years of age, when (1785) she became acquainted with the Prince of Wales who was six years her junior. He fell distractedly in love with her and was eager to become her third husband; but she, knowing that the Royal Marriage Act made the possibility of anything more than the appearance of decent nuptials in this case extremely doubtful, at first resisted all his importunities. Towards the close of the year, however, it became known that the Heir Apparent of the British Crown was about to marry the Catholic widow. Charles Fox, for once, acted the part of a friend in writing to the Prince to point out the dangerous nature of the course he was pursuing. He said:—

"Consider the circumstances in which you stand; the King not feeling to you as a father ought; the Duke of York, professedly his favourite, and likely to be married to the King's wishes; the nation full of its old prejudices against Catholics and justly dreading all disputes about successions." Then, on the subject that the marriage could not be a real one, he added:—"I need not point out to your good sense what a source of uneasiness it must be to you, to her, and above all, to the nation, to have it a matter of dispute and discussion whether the Prince of Wales is or is not married."

To this timely letter the Prince immediately replied :—"Make yourself easy, my dear friend ; believe me, the world will now soon be convinced that there not only is not, but never was, any ground for these reports which have of late been so malevolently circulated."

Ten days later the Prince and Mrs. Fitzherbert were married by an English clergyman in the presence of two witnesses. Mr. Fox, misled by the Prince, denied in the House of Commons the fact of the marriage ; but society was never blinded on the subject, and Mrs. Fitzherbert lived for several years with great openness as the wife of the Prince of Wales.

In 1795 the Prince was separated from Mrs. Fitzherbert, a marriage having been arranged with the unfortunate Princess Caroline of Brunswick in order that he might be able to pay his debts, which now amounted to £600,000. Mrs. Fitzherbert survived this event for forty-two years, and died at Brighton on the 29th of March, 1837, aged eighty-one. In January, 1796, a daughter was born to the Prince and Princess of Wales, and three months afterwards the royal couple parted never to meet on friendly terms again.

The outbreak of the war with France in 1793 does not seem to have troubled the King much ; but the alleged marriage of his sixth son, the Duke of Sussex, in his twenty-first year, with Lady Augusta Murray, some years his senior, did. It was a discreditable affair, inasmuch as the lady was very shortly about to become a mother, and the contracting parties were disguised at the marriage ceremony so that the officiating clergyman did not recognise them. They were married in the names of Augustus Frederick and Augusta Murray, in the presence of a coal merchant and his wife, of South Molton Street, with whom they lodged. The Royal Marriage Act, which had been passed almost at the command of the King, forbade the marriage of English Princes and Princesses with English subjects, and he never forgave his son. In his own name he instituted a suit against him in the Court of Arches, and the marriage, valid though it was, was annulled, and the infant son was declared illegitimate, to the great misery of all concerned.

"Evil communications corrupt good manners," and soon after the marriage of his elder brother to Mrs. Fitzherbert, the Duke of York, the acknowledged favourite son of the King, became the cause of much grief to him, by making himself notorious in disgraceful scenes at Brighton, and by adopting the views of Fox and the Opposition. Whole books can be found, giving in detail the story of the life of the Duke of York. To only one incident we will refer here, and our main motive for giving these somewhat unsavoury particulars is to show how different the life of the Court was in those days than in these, and to indicate how the progress of the century has been assisted by a purer life in the highest circles.

Four days after the arrival of the news of the retreat of the British Army at Corunna and the death of Moore (namely, on the 27th of June, 1809), Colonel Wardle, M.P. for Oakhampton, and formerly Colonel of the Welsh Fusiliers, brought forward charges against the Duke of York of corrupt practices in the administration of his power and patronage as Commander-in-Chief of the Army.

The story is altogether a painful one. Six years before this date, the Duke, who for eighteen years had been a married man, had formed an intimacy with a married woman, named Mary Ann Clarke, a person of humble origin and impure life, but of

considerable beauty and powers of fascination. "During their intimacy, which lasted until May, 1806, the Duke not only supported her in an expensive establishment in London, but had the weakness and bad taste to consent to her taking a country house in the neighbourhood of his own residence, Oatlands Park, where she had the effrontery to appear at the village church when the Duchess of York was present."*

The charge against the Duke was, that he had allowed his mistress to sell military commissions for her own advantage, and that he had participated in the proceeds of her infamous traffic. The charge was so indignantly discredited by the King and his Ministers that instead of conducting the inquiry by a private Committee of the House of Commons, it was insisted upon that the widest publicity should be given to the inquiry, and that all witnesses should be examined before a Committee of the whole House. This was a grave mistake in every way, for if the innocence of the Duke were proved up to the hilt, the public inquiry, which lasted for two months, could not fail to damage him in general estimation. Day by day witnesses of both sexes and of all characters appeared at the Bar of the House giving details of the most scandalous description and making disclosures of startling and discreditable facts.

MRS. MARY ANN CLARKE.

"What a scene are we exhibiting to the world!" Wilberforce wrote in his diary. "It was no more than was to be foreseen by any one who was ever so little acquainted with the House of Commons. We are alive to the political offence, but to the moral crime we are utterly insensible; and the reception which every *double entendre* meets in the House must injure our character greatly with all serious minds." †

Mrs. Clarke, throughout the inquiry, was subjected to most searching cross-examination, but never for a moment lost her self-possession or power of clever repartee.‡

The Duke of York was exonerated, by a majority of eighty-two votes, from the charge of personal corrupt participation in the infamous transactions brought to light. The same day he resigned his appointment as Commander-in-Chief.

Now let us follow the private life of the King. Throughout the greater part of it he was, as we have said or inferred, subject to fits of insanity, and when we think of the anxieties that pressed upon him on every side, we are not surprised at the frequent recurrence of his malady, even though it arose from no other cause. The first really serious attack was in 1788 and in the many volumes of "Diaries" and "Correspondence"

* "Jesse's Memoirs," Vol. III.

† Life of Wilberforce, Vol. III., p. 402.

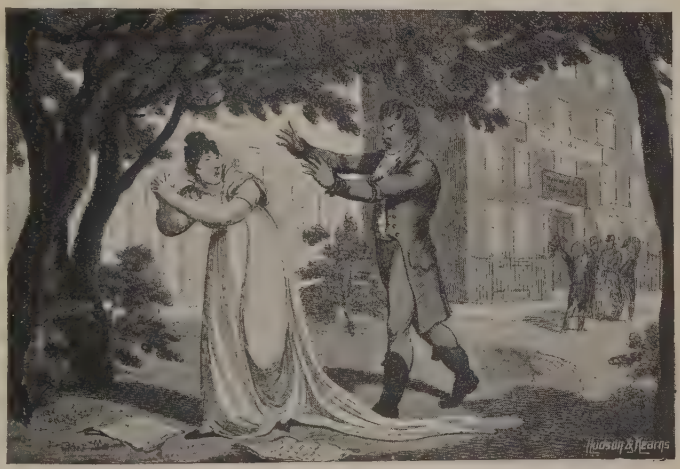
‡ One of her retorts deserves recording. A certain member bluntly asked her "Pray, Madam, under whose protection are you now?" The insulted woman, instead of condescending to answer the offensive question direct, calmly and gracefully addressed herself to the Chairman, "At present Sir," she said, "I believe I am under yours."—Jesse's Memoirs. Vol. III., p. 526.

of this reign, there are to be found highly coloured accounts of the horrible treatment of the poor sufferer by his attendants and his "two sons, whose conduct shocked even the feelings of their boon companions." We think that too much has been made of this in Memoirs and books of cruel gossip, although no one would probably care to write a vindication either of the attendants or of the Princes. The King recovered his reason just when the Regency question was first discussed.*

In January, 1804, the King was seized with an illness which, as on former occasions, was followed by a serious attack of insanity, and for two days his life was in danger. A month later Lord Colchester wrote to a friend :—"The King is recovering fast, and had yesterday a long interval of reason and composure; but has every day the strait waistcoat. . . . He submits cheerfully to the restraint which he believes to be necessary, and is perfectly contented under the treatment of Dr. Simmons, of St. Luke's Hospital, who now attends him."†

The malady preceding his derangement was described as "An *Hydrops Pectoris*" or "a water in the chest of the body," to counteract which, it is stated, they scarified his legs! By the end of March he was restored to health.

The King's speech from the Throne at the commencement of the session (1805) was the last delivered in person, owing to his failing eyesight. A few months later a cataract had formed over one eye, and a second cataract was in process of forming over the other. It was the beginning of his subsequent total blindness.



THE DISCARDED CLARKE; OR, EVE DRIVEN OUT OF PARADISE.
From a Contemporary Caricature.

During the Clarke scandal in 1809, affecting the Duke of York, it was faring ill with the poor King, harassed to distraction while appearing to be stoical. There was not a man in the kingdom to be pitied so much as he—the revelation of horrible profligacy, abhorrent to his pure mind and quiet religious life, distressed him beyond expression; the fact that the Prince of Wales had elected to stand aloof in an assumed attitude of neutrality, notwithstanding the King had "in an agony of mind" urged him to alter his course; the circumstance that the Queen was ill, and that two of the Princesses lay at death's door, was enough to break down the strongest man, whereas he was old, nearly blind, and with all his mental faculties unhinged. And in this year of private trouble and public disaster, the King celebrated the Jubilee of his accession to the throne. The people were wild with delight, bells rang, trumpets blared, fireworks and illuminations made a brave display, new costumes were invented, fêtes, dinners, balls, and

* As showing the state of medical science it may be interesting to know that when the illness began "His Majesty was blooded fourteen ounces." Six weeks later, as the pain had settled into "stitches in his breast," he was "blooded in the foot."

†Lord Colchester's Diaries.

every outward form of gaiety ushered in the year of Jubilee, and another series of entertainments marked its close. It was a genuine outburst of loyalty, and sympathy was added to the affection of the people for the King. They rejoiced that he was still with them, holding in his feeble hands the reins of power, and they were thankful to have him, as he was, rather than to have his son ruling as Regent—a man whom nobody loved, and whose vices were detested by every right thinking person in the realm.

When the festivities were over, the quiet life of the King went on as usual. He still attended daily prayers and "knew the Psalms so well that though blind, he could repeat the alternate verses after the clergyman almost as well as if he were able to see;" he took his daily drives, walked among the people, listened to the Band on the terrace at Windsor and still preserved his invariable custom of raising his hat to the performers and saying "Good-night, gentlemen, I thank you."

Then came a day, the darkest in the troubled life of the King. His youngest and favourite daughter, Princess Amelia, the loving companion of his walks and drives, the very sunshine of his life, was lying seriously ill and no hope was left of her recovery. Both she and her father had only a few months before suffered a terrible shock on hearing of a murderous attack on the King's fifth son, the Duke of Cumberland, and this had been followed by a return of the King's illness. Nevertheless, he attended her daily, administering every solace that could be drawn from religion and parental love. One day, feeling that her end was approaching, she sent a valuable stone, on which she set great store, to a London jeweller to be made in haste into a ring for her father, as a "keepsake." She had ordered that a lock of her hair should be worked into the ring and below the inscription of her name, the words "Remember me." When the King, according to his unfailing custom, came to visit her, she placed the ring upon his finger. The mental anguish caused by this act of love and tenderness; the knowledge he possessed that her end was at hand, and that she now realised the fact, was more than he could bear. And he left the bedside stricken with a calamity worse than death.*

Princess Amelia died on the 2nd of November at the age of twenty-eight and was buried in due state.†

Although, during the remainder of the year, the King's bodily health was partially restored and the state of his mind fluctuated, it was not long before the physicians came to the conclusion "that the intellects of the venerable monarch were irretrievably and permanently eclipsed," a conclusion that unhappily proved too true.‡

The remainder of the years of his life was spent within the walls of Windsor Castle in mental and physical darkness, a calamity almost without its parallel in the history of Kings. Two sources of comfort were, however, left to him. Throughout those weary years his simple trust in the great truths of religion was, to some extent, preserved to him; and music still had some of its old power to cheer and solace.

* The *Morning Post* of the 31st of October, 1810, told the tale in these words:—
"It is with heartfelt sorrow that we announce that His Majesty's indisposition still continues. It commenced with the effect produced on his tender parental feelings on receiving the ring from the hand of his afflicted, beloved daughter, the affecting inscription on which caused him, blessed and most amiable of men, to burst into tears, with the most heart-touching lamentations on the present state and approaching dissolution, of the afflicted and interesting princess. His Majesty is attended by Drs. Halford, Heberden, and Baillie, who issue daily bulletins of the state of the virtuous and revered monarch, for whose recovery the prayers of all good men will not fail to be offered up."

† It may interest the curious in such matters to know "that in her coffin were 8,000 nails, 6,000 small and 2,000 large, eight large plates and handles of the Tuscan Order; a crown at the top of the same description as issued from the Herald's office; two palm-branches in a cross saltier, under the crown, with P.A. (the initials of Her Royal Highness).

‡ "It was a remarkable circumstance that absorbing as had been the interest taken by the King in the illness and sufferings of the Princess Amelia, and fatal as was the effect they had produced on his mind, yet he no sooner became a prey to insanity than her name ceased to pass his lips. Sometime afterwards, when he was at length led to speak of his beloved daughter, it was under the happy delusion that she was in Hanover, not only alive and well, but endowed with the gifts of perpetual youth and strength." Jesse's Memoirs.

Thackeray has drawn the picture of the last days of the King in indelible characters :—

"All the world knows the story of his malady ; all history presents no sadder figure than that of the old man, blind and deprived of reason, wandering through the rooms of his palace, addressing imaginary parliaments, reviewing fancied troops, holding ghostly courts. I have seen his picture as it was taken at this time hanging in the apartment of his daughter, the Landgravine of Hesse-Homburg, amidst books and Windsor furniture, and a hundred fond reminiscences of her English home. The poor old father is represented in a purple gown . . . . . the star of his famous Order still idly shining on it. He was not only sightless ; he became utterly deaf. All light, all reason, all sound of human voices, all the pleasures of this world of God, were taken from him. Some slight lucid moments he had, in one of which, the Queen, desiring to see him, entered the room and found him singing a hymn, and accompanying himself at the harpsicord. When he had finished, he knelt down and prayed for her, and then for his family, and then for the nation, concluding with a prayer for himself, that it might please God to avert his heavy calamity from him, but if not, to give him resignation to submit. He then burst into tears, and his reason again fled."

"MUSIC STILL HAD SOME OF ITS OLD POWER."

The exemplary Queen Charlotte died at Kew on the 17th of November, 1818, in the seventy-fifth year of her age ; Parliament then consigning the guardianship of the King's person to his son, the Duke of York. And on the 29th of January, 1820, the afflicted King passed peacefully away in the eighty-second year of his age and the sixtieth of his reign, and the people, who had never forgotten him in his appalling loneliness and distress and had forgiven him his faults and errors of judgment, mourned him as a Father.

When the illness of the King began in October, 1810, Parliament was placed in a very awkward position. It stood prorogued until the first of November when both

Houses met and again adjourned. Vague hopes were held out of the King's recovery in six months, but steps had to be taken at once and he was utterly incompetent to direct them, therefore on the 20th of November, the Chancellor of the Exchequer moved three resolutions on the subject and proposed the Regency of the Prince of Wales.

In January 1811, an Act was passed entitled "An Act to provide for the Administration of the Royal Authority, and for the care of the Royal Person during the continuance of His Majesty's illness, and for the Resumption of the Exercise of the Royal Authority." The Prince of Wales was to exercise kingly powers—very much shorn, however, in the matters of granting peerages, offices, and pensions—whilst the Queen, assisted by a Council, was to have the care of his Majesty's person and the direction of his household.

ROBING THE REGENT.
From a Caricature of 1811.

CHAPTER XIII.

THE DOWNFALL OF NAPOLEON.

THE failure of the Walcheren Expedition, in 1809, brought about the fall of the Ministry of Lord Portland, and led to a duel between Lord Castlereagh and George Canning, when both Ministers resigned. Mr. Spencer Perceval, a man of very moderate abilities, then (1812) became Prime Minister and Chancellor of the Exchequer, the Marquis of Wellesley, Foreign Secretary, and Lord Liverpool, Secretary of War.

A tragic event soon brought about another change. On the 11th of May (1812) Mr. Perceval had just entered the lobby of the House of Commons, on his way into the House, when a lunatic, concealed behind the door, shot him with a pistol. The Minister staggered forward with a slight exclamation, and fell dead on the floor. The assassin was a Liverpool merchant, named Bellingham, who had a grievance against a Consul and Ambassador abroad, which he thought would be redressed by gaining publicity in this manner. Lord Liverpool, a temperate and judicious leader, now became Prime Minister, with Lord Castlereagh as Secretary of Foreign Affairs, a man of excellent judgment and *nous*.

MURDER OF PERCEVAL IN THE LOBBY OF THE HOUSE OF COMMONS.
May 11th, 1812.
From a Contemporary Print.

They came into office at a very critical time. The Prince of Wales was Regent, the Peninsular War was drawing, it was hoped, to a close, Napoleon was preparing for the invasion of Russia, and England was entering upon a war with the United States. The unhappy quarrel with America, which never should have arisen, was brought about by the Orders in Council, which followed Napoleon's Berlin Decree. These orders were revoked, as regarded the United States, twelve days after the new Ministry had come into power. But it was too late. Five days before, an Act of Congress had declared America at war with Great Britain.

It was a mistake on both sides, and prompt action should have brought about a proper understanding, and have prevented the war from proceeding. The ground of quarrel was, that by the Orders in Council, we claimed the right to search neutral vessels and to seize French goods or munitions of war, and especially, to capture deserters from our navy. England did, as a matter of fact, propose to withdraw all restrictions that were injurious to American trade, and to make the right of search a matter of friendly

negotiation. The proposal was, however, in vain, and America, with a navy of only a few frigates and sloops, and an army only half-drilled and half-armed, rushed into war. Three attempts to invade Canada ended in failure, but on the seas they were at first victorious, and numerous engagements between single ships occurred. This led to the sending out of more powerful vessels, and the great sea-duel between the 'Shannon' and the 'Chesapeake' redeemed the honour of the British Navy.

In 1814, at the end of the Peninsular War, Wellington's veterans reinforced the British army in America, and four thousand men, under General Ross, appeared in the Potomac, captured Washington, and shamefully burnt to the ground the Capitol, the Senate House, the House of Representatives, the Arsenal, in short, all the great public buildings. The Americans had their revenge at New Orleans. Six thousand men, under General Sir Edward Pakenham, advanced against the city under an awful fire of grape-shot, and were repulsed from behind impregnable fortresses of cotton bags, with fearful loss, two thousand English having been slain as against fourteen Americans killed and wounded.

While this battle was going forward, peace had already been concluded, and the countries that had so unwisely fought against each other for two and a half years, settled their claims amicably in the Treaty of 1814.

Early in 1812, when Napoleon had set America and England at strife, when his troops were still pouring into the Peninsula, when he had silenced every Power save England and Russia, and was at the zenith of his fame as the World-Conqueror—at that critical moment Russia and Sweden made a compact to resist the hateful Berlin Decree and the sacrifice of commerce to the Continental System. This was the signal for a rupture—Napoleon declared war against Russia, and on the 24th of June, the French Army, consisting of half a million of men, crossed the River Niemen and entered Russian territory; as magnificent an army in numbers, experience, and equipment as ever set forth to war. The Emperor, flushed with pride, without a shadow of doubt as to victory—for he had three-quarters of a million of men to whom his will was absolute left at home, or guarding the interests of Spain—watched with proud satisfaction his legions pass on. "My power would fall," he had said, "were I not to support it by new achievements. Conquest has made me what I am, and conquest must maintain me."

Little did he think that nearly four hundred thousand of those gallant men were to find a grave in the land he was setting out to conquer—or if he did think, it is questionable whether he would have hesitated for a moment in the course that he conceived Destiny had marked out for him.

To his surprise, the Russians, those once ardent fighters, fell back everywhere before him, evacuating province after province, but laying waste the country as they went, and carrying off all provisions. Napoleon entered Wilna without striking a blow; then onward to the field of Borodino. But before he reached that memorable field, the system of devastation pursued by the Russians had already told, and the French army was suffering from lack of food and water, while, owing to the intense heat, a terrible mortality had set in, and the whole line of march was strewn with carcases of horses and the unburied bodies of men.

At Borodino the Russians, seeing the weakened condition of the invading forces, gave battle, and about one hundred and twenty thousand on either side, with the line of battle nearly three miles in extent, entered upon a desperate encounter; the victory

being on the side of the French. It was one of the hardest fought and bloodiest conflicts upon record in ancient or modern times, and it was undecisive, but—a hundred thousand men were left dead or dying on the field.

The Russians retreated, and when the French arrived at Moscow they found the ancient city deserted. The Emperor took up his residence in the Kremlin, the Palace

RETREAT FROM MOSCOW.

of the Czars, and awaited overtures of peace. On the day following his triumphal entry into Moscow, he was hurriedly driven from it; the city was in flames! The conflagration burst forth at once in various quarters of the city, and enveloped the Kremlin with its

lurid clouds. During three days, himself in the neighbouring château of Petrowskoi, and with his soldiers at their bivouacs around him, Napoleon might mournfully contemplate the dismal progress of the flames. At length, on the 19th, he was enabled to return to the citadel-palace. The conflagration had then almost ceased, but about four-fifths of the city was destroyed. The remaining houses, however, were sufficient to shelter the army, and there soon appeared means for its support. It is the custom in that country, owing to the length and severity of the winter, to lay in stores of provisions for several months, and thus the cellars of the burnt houses were found, when laid open, to contain large quantities of corn and salted meat, of wine, brandy, sugar and tea. Thus the soldiers could, at last, obtain some refreshment and repose after all their weary marches and their murderous battles.

It was on the 15th of September that Napoleon entered Moscow. While he was waiting for the Czar to offer terms of peace, he gave orders for a series of theatrical performances, by a Company he had brought out with him under the direction of M. de Bausset, and had evidently intended to settle down. But no overtures for peace came; it was the policy of Russia to delay as long as possible; they knew the extremity of cold that was near at hand, and the effect it would have upon men from warmer climates. Napoleon lingered in Moscow until the 19th of October, just when the deadly winter was setting in; then he had to retreat, and for the retreat he had made no preparation. In days gone by, he had said in his pride, "There shall be no Alps;" and he built his perfect roads and laid Italy as open to Paris as any French town. He had announced, "The House of Braganza has ceased to reign!" Did he think he could say "There shall be no Winter?" and, "Russia shall cease to be?"

Too late he held a council of his chiefs, when the Comte de Lobau said, bluntly, "I think that we ought to leave at once, and by the shortest route, the country where we have already remained too long."

The story of the retreat from Moscow, attended by horrors unsurpassed in human history, need not be told again in detail. Of one portion of that awful journey, we will give the description of an eye-witness.*

"From that time the road was strewed with guns, tumbrils, equipages, men, and horses; for no foraging parties could quit the highroad in search of provisions; and consequently the debility hourly increased. Thousands of horses soon lay groaning on the route, with great pieces of flesh cut off their necks and most fleshy parts by the passing soldiery for food; whilst thousands of naked wretches (†) were wandering like spectres who seemed to have no sight or sense, and who only kept reeling on till frost, famine, or the Cossack lance put an end to their power of motion. In that wretched state no nourishment could have saved them. There were continual instances, even amongst the Russians, of their lying down, dozing, and dying within a quarter of an hour after a little bread had been supplied."

In the course of the journey, the River Berezina had to be passed under the murderous fire of the Russians, and so deadly was the slaughter that when the thaw set in "the Russians buried twelve thousand bodies of Frenchmen, found in the river." Then

* General Sir Robert Wilson, C.M.T., Baron of the Holy Roman Empire, G.C. St. A. of Russia, C.C. St. G. of Russia, etc. "Private Diary of Travels."

† Sir Robert Wilson says of the French whom ne saw as captives, that they could not be induced by any temptations, threats, or privations to cast reproach on their Emperor, as the cause of their misfortunes and sufferings, and he describes how terrible was the fate of these brave captives. "All prisoners were immediately and invariably stripped, stark naked, and marched in columns in that state, or turned adrift to be the sport and the victims of the peasantry, who would not always let them, as they sought to do, point and hold the muzzles of the guns against their own heads or hearts to terminate their sufferings in the most certain and expeditious manner; for the peasantry thought that this mitigation of torture would be an offence against the Avenging God of Russia, and would deprive them of His further protection."

came the last scene of all. In a headlong retreat, the French re-crossed the Niemen with only eighty thousand left of the six hundred thousand who had crossed it on the way to Russia!

Disasters were now thickening round Napoleon. Prussia allied herself to the victorious Russians: nearly all Germany arose in revolt: Austria and Sweden joined the allies; Wellington was victoriously concluding the great war in the Peninsula.

In this hour of trial, the military genius of Napoleon transcended itself. With the desperation of a gamester, by hook and by crook, he gathered together an army of two hundred thousand men and *boys* (for he had to reduce the military age and the standard of height), and in April, set forth to meet the allied armies of Russia and Prussia on the Elbe. Two victories—at Lutzen and Bautzen—crowned his efforts, and

Philippoteaux.

THE RETREAT FROM RUSSIA.

the allies were driven to seek an armistice. The conflict was resumed, and finished at the great Battle of the Nations at Leipzig, where, after a desperate conflict, Napoleon was completely beaten, and driven over the Rhine. He got back to Paris where he vainly tried to rally the people. But the case was hopeless. Wellington, with seventy thousand men, flushed with victory, was already about to enter France; the allies, with four hundred thousand men, were preparing to cross the Rhine. It was not long before he saw that it was useless to attempt resistance to the overwhelming forces of the invaders. He could no longer defend his throne, nor could he hold the sympathies of his people. The allied Sovereigns stood at the gates of the capital, and the fickle Parisians welcomed them with open arms! Paris was surrendered, Napoleon abdicated

the throne in favour of his son, and the French Senate passed a decree, declaring "that Napoleon had forfeited the throne; that the right of inheritance was abolished in his family, and that the French people and army were absolved from their oaths of allegiance."

The Bourbon Dynasty was restored, and Louis XVIII., the legitimate claimant of the Crown, who had for many years been residing at Hartwell House, in the county of Buckingham, was recalled, and was received in France with a prolonged outburst of enthusiasm. Meanwhile, it had been settled by the allied Sovereigns that the fallen Emperor should be permitted to retire to the Island of Elba; to retain his title; to be allowed a body-guard of four hundred men, and a pension of £100,000 a year. Disguised for protection against the fury of the people, forsaken by his old followers, execrated by the men, who, but a few months before, would have laid down their lives for his sake, Napoleon, the "exorbitant egotist," passed to his island prison.

AFTER THE BATILE OF LEIPZIG.

When he had been some ten months at Elba, and the Treaty of Paris had been signed and adjustments made in the European countries; when Wellington had been received at home with enthusiastic demonstrations; and when all England had been excited by the visit of the Sovereigns of Russia and Prussia to the Prince Regent; when a great Congress was sitting at Vienna, to divide the spoils of conquest, and to arrange the final settlement of Europe, news arrived that moved the world like an earthquake. Napoleon had escaped from Elba!

To extinguish his ambition he had been suffered to retain the Imperial title; to destroy his connection with the French military, he was permitted to retain his flag, his staff, and a portion of his guard; to prevent the possibility of his renewing disturbances in France or Italy he was fixed on an island almost within sight of

both, while the consequences were foreseen by all mankind, except the Emperors, the Diplomatists, and the Bourbons.*

The splendid dash and vigour of his escape fired the imagination of the French people, inspired the army to be willing to sacrifice itself for the sake of glory and plunder, and brought back many of his old marshals to his side. Louis XVIII. fled from Paris, the white flag was taken down and replaced by the tricolour, and Napoleon, once more the idol of the army, if not of the whole people, returned to the Tuileries!

Instead of the Congress, that was then sitting, continuing its work of distributing spoils, it had now to consider how to crush the destroyer of the peace of Europe, who had annihilated the only legal title on which his existence depended, who had placed himself outside the pale of civil and social relations, who had rendered himself liable to public vengeance, and with whom there could be neither peace nor truce.

All Europe now rang with preparations for war. Great Britain, Russia, Prussia, and Austria formed an alliance, and each agreed to keep one hundred and fifty thousand men constantly in the field. Wellington set out from Vienna to assume the English command in Belgium; Blücher, in command of the Prussian army, took up a position at Namur, and the details of a battle soon to be fought at Waterloo, were settled.

The energies, the talent, the power of Napoleon, shone out now more conspicuously than ever. Never was such a leader so endowed; never leader found such aids and followers. Three hundred thousand men were ready once more to do his bidding, and to fight to the death. He was wise in his generation, and he knew the French character better than anyone else. He knew that what was to be done, must be done while the enthusiasm of the excited people was red-hot; he must strike at once at Wellington and Blücher, and defeat them in detail before the dispersed forces of the other allies could be concentrated.

On the night of the 15th June, Wellington was at a ball in the lodgings of the Duchess of Richmond, in Brussels. During the day he had been kept informed of the enemy's movements, and had caused his army to march by various roads to Quatre-Bras. There was a pause in the ball after midnight, when the clatter of horse-hoofs and the roll of artillery were heard in the streets. One by one the officers, who had shared in the festivities of the night, stole away, and hurrying each to his own corps, were in action a few hours subsequently, many of them in their ball dresses.

Mr. Gleig tells the following anecdote. "There occurred at that ball an incident, trifling in itself, but which, because it indicated the Duke's entire perception of what was about to happen, seems to demand notice. After wishing the Duchess good-night, he approached the Duke of Richmond, and said in a low voice, "Have you a good map of the country in the house?" An answer was given in the affirmative, whereupon the two gentlemen adjourned to the Duke of Richmond's bedroom, and there the map was produced. The Duke of Wellington examined it and said, 'Bonaparte has gained a day's march on me; I have arranged to meet him at Quatre-Bras. If I am not able to stop him there, I will fight him *here*,' making at the same time a mark with his thumb-nail at Waterloo. No more passed between them, the Duke of Richmond returned to his guests, and the Duke of Wellington rode off to carry into execution the simple plan thus set forth."†

Napoleon with one hundred and twenty thousand men, had taken up a position at Charleroi, where, as we have said, he hoped to prevent the union of Wellington and

*Croley's "Life of George IV."

†"The Life of the Duke of Wellington," by G. R. Gleig, M.A. Page 260.

Blücher, and to crush each army separately—but he had reckoned without his host. He tried his strength first with Blücher at Ligny, between Brussels and Namur, and a desperate conflict ensued. The place was taken and retaken six times, and the troops on both sides fought with fury, both being animated by a spirit of revenge. Here the gallant old Blücher narrowly escaped death. His horse was struck by a cannon shot, and fell, and had not his aide-de-camp, Nostitz, covered and hidden him with a military cloak, he would probably have been slain, or, what would have been worse to him, made captive. Victory attended Napoleon for the last time; the Prussians were repulsed. "They lost the field, but not their honour," and were drawn back upon Wavre, and in his brief hour of triumph, the indomitable Corsican vowed that "on the 17th or 18th he would measure himself with Wellington." On that same day Marshal Ney, with twenty thousand men, attacked the English and Belgians at Quatre-Bras. They held their ground with terrible loss, and, but for reinforcements arriving during the battle, would. perchance, have lost the day. As it fell, however, Ney retired, baffled;

WELLINGTON'S HEADQUARTERS ON WATERLOO.

Wellington withdrew from Quatre-Bras, and fell back on Waterloo to unite with the Prussians; and so Napoleon's brilliant scheme of crushing each army separately, ended in failure.

Wellington, with his keen foresight of possibilities, took up his position on ground that seemed made on purpose for a defensive battle. The high road from Nivelles and Genappe unites at the village of Mont Saint Jean, whence the main road leads to Brussels. In front of the village, extends a long chain of hills with gentle slopes, offering all the advantages sought for by the Allies; in front of the centre of the allied army lay the Château of Hougomont, which was to hold so important a place in the history of the battle; to the left, and nearer to the front of the Allies, lay La Haye Sainte a farm house. The undulating ground behind the range of hills referred to, offered every facility for posting the cavalry and reserves so as to conceal them from the

enemy. The army of Napoleon was drawn up in a semi-circle on the heights to the east and west of the farm of La Belle Alliance.

Wellington's army consisted of sixty-seven thousand men, of whom only twenty-four thousand were British, the remainder being composed of the German Legions, Hanoverians, Brunswickers, Nassovians, and Netherlanders.

We do not propose to inflict upon the reader any description of the battle of Waterloo. It can be found in a hundred books,* and it has been told in a hundred different ways It will be enough to say that the battle was fought on both sides with splendid courage, that its deeds of bravery were unexampled in the story of heroism and that the pluck, purpose, and endurance of men, were never more conspicuously displayed.

Andrew Gow.

AFTER WATERLOO.
Sauve qui peut.

The battle raged furiously for eight hours, and every hour told against the French. The one hope of Napoleon was now to concentrate all his strength and crush Wellington before Blücher should come to his aid. With the Imperial Guard, which had been held in reserve for the *grand coup*, he rushed upon La Haye Sainte, but in vain; then over the slope to Hougomont, but only to be repulsed and shattered. Then the British line advanced and the broken troops of France made their flight in hopeless panic.

Napoleon set spurs to his horse and fled for dear life to Paris. Here he demanded that his Ministers should provide him with money and men to continue the war. But France was sick and tired of him and of his wars, and as there were but sixty thousand troops to sustain the shock of confederated Europe, there was nothing for him to do but

*Notably in Sir Edward Creasey's "Fifteen Decisive Battles of the World." A very clear and succinct account of the battle is to be found in Baedeker's "Hand-book to Belgium."

NAPOLEON OVERTHROWN. *Delaroche.*

to abdicate. He fled to Rochfort with a view to seek an asylum in the United States, but the port was blockaded. From that place he wrote to the Prince Regent, asking that he might throw himself on the hospitality of the British people. Then he surrendered himself to Captain Maitland, seeking protection on the Bellerophon, under the British flag.

On the 8th of August, 1815, he was conveyed in the "Northumberland," to the island of St. Helena, where he was to spend the rest of his life, subject to such restrictions as should effectually prevent his escape. Here

ON THE BELLEROPHON.

he dragged out a few unhappy years, cut off from all association with the scenes of his former glory; consumed with vexation and chagrin, weighed down by mental suffering, and afflicted to torture by internal cancer, and on the 5th of May, 1821, the man "that made the earth to tremble, that did shake kingdoms, that made the world as a wilderness, and destroyed the cities thereof,"* passed away.

*Isaia xiv. 16, 17.

THE BRIARS AND PAVILION, ST. HELENA.
Occupied by Napoleon.

Copyright. *J. S. Crompton.*

THE RETURN OF THE NATIVE.

CHAPTER XIV.

AFTER WATERLOO.

1815-1820.

THE battle of Waterloo, which finally closed the long war with France, placed England in a higher position as regards Continental Europe, than she had ever filled before. In the course of the long struggle with Napoleon Bonaparte, the other great powers had been alternately his enemies and his allies. England was his consistent opponent throughout; she had assisted other nations by large grants of money; her fleets had kept the seas almost unchecked, and if her armies had sometimes been compelled to retreat before the eagles of the French, the victory that ended Napoleon's military career was due to British soldiers and to the patience and skill of their commander.

Although the earlier years of the reign of George III. had witnessed the loss of the American Colonies, at the end of the long war the nation had won in Asia and Africa a territory equivalent in extent to that of the United States as they then existed. In Europe she had kept Gibraltar and obtained the Ionian islands—afterwards ceded to Greece—and Malta as the result of the War.

The deliberations of the Congress assembled at Vienna to settle the map of Europe after the abdication of Napoleon, in 1814, were, as we have seen, rudely interrupted by his escape from Elba. Treaties had already been signed for the restriction of France within her former limits; Lombardy and Venice were assigned to Austria, but she lost the Austrian Netherlands, now Belgium, which from 1815 to 1830 formed part of the Kingdom of Holland; Prussia obtained a portion of Saxony; the influence of Russia was considerably enhanced; Tuscany and Modena were handed over to Austrian Archdukes, and the former Republic of Genoa was annexed to Piedmont. While Kings and Emperors recovered what they had lost at one time or another to Napoleon, and received in addition territories to which they had no moral claim, by way of compensation for their exertions, there was very little or no regard paid to the welfare of the unfortunate peoples over whom they ruled. Nothing was done for the Poles, Italy was divided between the Bourbons, Austria, the Pope, and Sardinia; and the aspirations of Germany for some measure of liberty were wholly neglected. These arrangements, the work of the Emperors of Russia and Austria and the King of Prussia, were entered upon with the assent of the Ministers of England and are known in diplomacy as the Treaty of Vienna. After Waterloo, further negociations were necessary with regard to France and her late ruler, the Emperor Napoleon, but the arrangements of the Treaty of Vienna were undisturbed, and with few changes, formed part of the public law of Europe for more than forty years.

At this critical juncture, those who directed our affairs, did nothing for the liberties of the European peoples, and they were equally negligent of the welfare of their countrymen. The Ministers of 1815 had been in office since 1807, at first with the Duke of Portland at the Treasury, and, on his resignation, under Spencer Perceval, who was succeeded by Lord Liverpool. He remained at the head of affairs for fifteen years, thereby establishing a record for the Premiership for this century. Lord Liverpool was

by no means an eminent man, and other members of the administration were more influential than he. Some people said Lord Eldon, the Chancellor, ruled the Ministers, and, as he was notoriously henpecked, others asserted that Lady Eldon was the real head of the nation. This joke was carried even farther, for her Ladyship's coachman, an old confidential servant, tyrannised, so it was rumoured, over his mistress, and was therefore the real ruler; the supporters of this theory arguing that as the coachman ruled his mistress, she ruled her husband, her husband the Cabinet, the Cabinet the Parliament, and Parliament, the people. Lord Eldon had risen by his own talents and exertions, and as Chancellor was a patient and upright judge, whose only fault was his inability to determine questions submitted for his decision. A hesitating cautious doubter on the Bench, he was in the House of Lords the obstinate opponent of progress, and if Ministers were guided by him there is little cause for wonder at their persistent neglect of the true interests of the nation. Lord Sidmouth, formerly Mr. Addington, was President of the Council, and Lord Castlereagh, who had skilfully assisted Pitt in carrying the Union of Great Britain and Ireland, was Secretary for Foreign Affairs. An ineffective speaker, whose involved and incomplete sentences puzzled and annoyed the House of Commons, he was hated by the people on account of his supposed sympathy with foreign despots, and so keen and rancorous was their hatred that he was carried to his grave amid the exultant shouts of the mob outside Westminster Abbey. His contemporaries scarcely did justice to his many good qualities, but it must be admitted that neither he nor his colleagues were well fitted to deal with the questions that arose on the conclusion of peace.

In 1816, the National Debt amounted to £861,000,000, having increased £633,000,000 in twenty-two years. The annual interest on the debt was £32,650,000, in addition to which the sinking fund amounted to £14,000,000 a year. In 1792, the total national expenditure had been less than £20,000,000 a year; during the last years of the war it was five times as much, and although the nation was most severely taxed, it was impossible to raise from the taxes the whole amount required, so that money was borrowed at very extravagant rates, and the debt grew until it attained the enormous sum just mentioned. One example will be sufficient to show how money was raised to carry on the war. In 1814, the Chancellor of the Exchequer raised a loan of £22,000,000, which was not the only loan of the year. Every person who lent £100 received £67 Consols and £110 Reduced Three per cent. stock, so that in order to obtain the £22,000,000 required, the National Debt was increased by no less than £38,940,000.

During the war a great deal of money was spent in the country on military and naval preparations, and a portion of the money so spent found its way, as wages, into the pockets of the working classes. England, unlike other European countries, had been free from invasion, and manufacturers carried on their business without danger of the irruption of a hostile army. Her merchant vessels were comparatively safe at sea, while the ships of countries at war with her could scarcely leave port without risk of capture. Agriculture, too, was prosperous, and if the labourer reaped too small a proportion of the high prices obtained for wheat and other products of the farm, the landlord and his tenant, in spite of heavy taxation, grew rich by leaps and bounds.

With peace, there came a sudden revulsion from the artificial prosperity produced by the war. The national expenditure was cut down, prices fell, the demand for labour diminished, and those who kept their employments had to submit to smaller wages. Since 1797 the Bank of England had been relieved from the necessity of paying its notes

in gold; as a consequence, very little gold was seen in the country, one pound notes being everywhere current. In 1815, gold was at a premium of £13 10s. per cent., and had cash payments been at once resumed, holders of notes would have incurred heavy losses. All, except the very poorest people, held notes, and we need not be surprised at the general alarm created by the fear that the law would be allowed to take its course, and cash payments be resumed at the expiration of six months from the conclusion of peace.

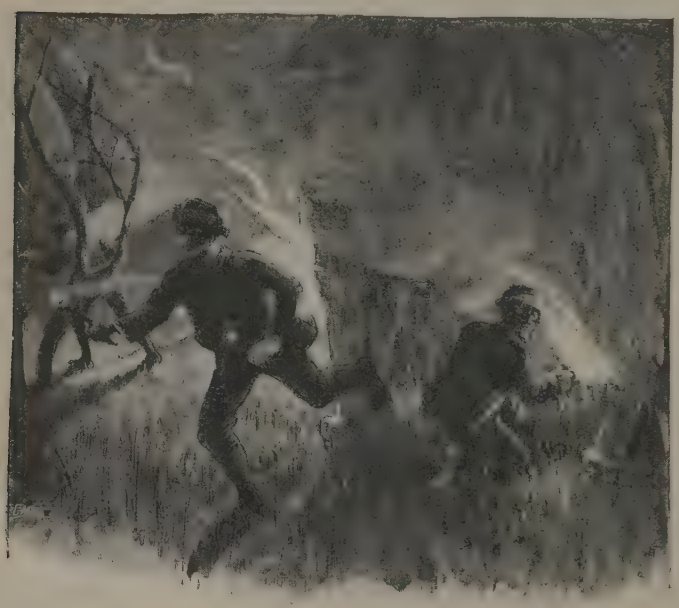
In spite of all these increasing difficulties, the Cabinet postponed the meeting of Parliament to the latest possible date, and then congratulated the nation, in the Regent's speech, on the flourishing state of the country. Their first duty was to provide for the expenditure of the coming year. The estimates showed a great reduction from the previous War Budget, but at least £66,500,000 would be required, of which £10,500,000 was for the Army, £9,500,000 for the Navy, £1,600,000 for the Ordnance, and about £44,000,000 for the debt and sinking fund. To meet these charges, it was supposed there would be a revenue of £58,500,000, leaving a deficiency of £8,000,000—not a pleasant outlook for the Chancellor of the Exchequer or the country. The customs in those days, when there were hundreds of articles liable to taxation, only produced £3,000,000, the Excise £19,000,000, stamps £6,000,000, and the Post Office £1,600,000. The Property Tax, first imposed by Pitt in 1799, had been levied since 1806 at the rate of ten per cent., and produced £15,000,000 a year. It was always regarded as a war tax, and difficult as it would be to provide for the deficit caused by its abolition, or reduction, the Ministry decided to reduce it by a half. But the Opposition were determined, if possible, that the tax should cease altogether, and knowing that in a direct trial of strength with Ministers they would be defeated, they devised, under the guidance of Brougham, a plan which was ultimately successful. In those days it was possible to raise a debate upon every petition presented to the House of Commons; the presentation of petitions against the Property Tax Bill was therefore encouraged, and as each petition was presented, the Member in charge of it explained its prayer and enforced its arguments in a long, elaborate, and generally tedious speech. Other members followed in support of the petition, and though Ministers and their supporters generally kept silent, there are limits to human patience, and valour getting the better of discretion, angry answers followed tedious arguments, and the debate was further prolonged. For six weeks petitions continued and were debated to the exclusion of all other business, until at last a weary House of Commons put a stop to the petition by throwing out the Property Tax Bill. The War Tax ceased, and there was no attempt to re-establish a Property Tax until 1842, when Sir Robert Peel resorted to it once more for the purpose of a thorough revision of the Custom's tariff.

Another tax was also given up. An additional duty on Malt had been imposed during the war, and now, in view of pressure from the agricultural interest, this was surrendered. The loss of these sources of income cost the country £10,000,000, namely £7,500,000 Property Tax and £2,500,000 Malt Duty, and the Chancellor of the Exchequer, unequal to the task of devising fresh taxes, borrowed the money he required.

The Ministers had little reason to congratulate themselves upon the conduct of public business in Parliament, and in the country matters were still worse. A wet summer was followed by a bad harvest, and early frosts destroyed the vegetables. Trade was almost at a standstill, and failures in business were alarmingly numerous. Workmen and labourers could not find employment and were driven to come on the parish. In

one part of Dorsetshire, four hundred and nineteen out of five hundred and seventy five persons were paupers, and at Swanage the proportion was even greater. In a Cambridgeshire parish there was, it is said, but one solvent man. The people could not get food, and supposed in their ignorance that the dearness of bread was due to a conspiracy of the farmers. In their anger and distress they burnt farm buildings, stacks of corn, and hay, and machinery. A special Commission was appointed to try the rioters and incendiaries, and thirty four persons were condemned to death, of whom five were actually executed.

In the mining and colliery districts, owing to the slackness of trade, thousands of men were in danger of starvation, and in the manufacturing counties things were very little better. Heedless of the severity which had marked the punishment of the agricultural rioters, the miners of Cornwall and Wales, the ironworkers of the Black Country, and the lace makers of Nottingham, assembled in large gangs, smashed machinery and threatened to do other mischief. There was scarcely a county in England and Wales which was wholly free from disturbance in the disastrous year, 1816.



RICK-BURNING.

In November the distressed artisans of London, Westminster, and Southwark were invited to meet in Spa Fields, Clerkenwell, then an open space, to consider the propriety of petitioning the Prince Regent and Parliament to adopt means to relieve the existing distress. The principal speaker was Harry Hunt, better known as Orator Hunt, a man of property and education, who had won some fame as an advocate of very extreme measures, and as a speaker who did not hesitate to abuse everybody opposed to him. He was supposed to be the leader of the Radicals, men whose principles and modes of action must be distinguished from those of the Radicals of to-day. Hunt's chief associates were Thistlewood, a desperate character, Watson, a poor doctor, and his son, Preston, and a man named Castle, who afterwards turned informer. Watson delivered an inflammatory address, and was followed by his son who was even more truculent. Inviting the crowd to accompany him he seized a tricolour flag, and led the surging rabble towards the city. On Snow Hill they seized the contents of a gunsmith's shop and wounded a man who was bold enough to remonstrate with them. Opposite the Mansion House they were confronted by the Lord Mayor and a strong body of police, who arrested some of the leaders and dispersed the rest of the rioters. In the following June, the leaders were brought to trial, but as the Attorney General had thought fit to

indict them for high treason, the jury, unwilling to find a verdict which would entail the horrible punishment of quartering, acquitted Watson, and the indictment against the other prisoners was withdrawn. So ended the Spa Field Riots.

The Cabinet were greatly alarmed at what had occurred and as soon as Parliament met, referred to Secret Committees of both Houses papers on the subject of the late disturbances. The Secret Committees were soon convinced that the country was in danger and that the existence of such Societies as 'Hampden Clubs,' 'Spenceans' and others, ought not to be allowed. Wise and moderate men were not so easily alarmed as the Cabinet and the Secret Committees. Mischief was, indeed, afoot in the City of London and elsewhere, but the proposed remedies were the devices of quacks unable to diagnose correctly the source of existing evils which would never be removed by merely repressive measures. But protests were unavailing. The Habeas Corpus Act was suspended for the last time in England, and Bills were passed for preventing seditious meetings, for the protection of the person of the Regent, and for the better prevention and punishment of attempts to seduce soldiers and sailors. The titles of these Bills give a very inadequate idea of the severity of some of the provisions contained in them. The Seditious Meetings Act was designed to shut up debating societies, lecture halls, and reading rooms, and even lectures on medicine, surgery, and chemistry were not exempted. A license to lecture could indeed be obtained from the magistrates, but they administered the law in the narrowest spirit. A London alderman opposed the grant of a license to the Academical Society, and the Vice-Chancellor of Cambridge University suppressed the Union Debating Society.

While Parliament was employing its time in thus curtailing the liberties of the King's subjects, it also passed two useful measures for the establishment and regulation of Savings Banks. The first English Savings Bank was founded in May, 1799, at Wendover, in Buckinghamshire, by the vicar of the parish, and his example was quickly followed in other places, but for some years Ministers refused to recognise them or to put these useful institutions on a proper legal basis. An unsuccessful attempt to legislate for them was made in 1816, and in the following year two separate Bills, one for England and Wales, and the other for Ireland, became law. The Trustees were endowed with certain necessary powers and were permitted to invest their funds with the National Debt Commissioners, to whom they forthwith handed over about £250,000, the aggregate savings of the depositors in seventy English, four Welsh, and four Irish Banks. It was the day of small things; the accumulated savings of depositors in the Trustee and Post Office Savings Banks of the United Kingdom now amount to £186,000,000.

The attention of the House of Commons was also directed in the session of 1817 to the necessity for retrenchment in the National Expenditure, and a strong committee was appointed to consider the whole subject. It is difficult in these days to realise that, at the beginning of this century, when the war made such tremendous drains on the Exchequer, pensions were conferred upon persons who had no claim to them except the fact of their relationship to a Minister, and that many sinecure offices were tolerated. "A successful politician could easily ensure his own affluence, and could usually obtain a comfortable provision for his children."* Lord Grenville was Auditor of the Exchequer with £4,000 a year; when he retired from the Government in 1801 he obtained a pension of £1,500 a year for his wife. His brother Thomas was one of the chief justices in Eyre with £2,000 a year. The family of the Duke of Portland was still

* Spencer Walpole's "History of England." Vol. I.

more fortunate. Lord William Bentinck had £1,131 a year as Clerk of the Pipe, and £2,500 a year as Colonel of Dragoons. The Duke's son-in-law, Charles Greville, received £1,522 from three appointments; his grandson, Charles Greville, the diarist, had £3,000 a year as Secretary in Jamaica and £2,000 a year as Clerk of the Council, an office which required a certain amount of work and attendance. The eldest son of Lord Sidmouth had £3,000 a year as Clerk of the Palls. These appointments were all, or nearly all, sinecures, and the Committee of the House of Commons, recommended,

THE CENOTAPH, WINDSOR.

after due consideration, that these offices were fit to be abolished or regulated, and their recommendations were adopted, proper regard being paid to the interests of existing holders. Pensioners and sinecurists are proverbially long-lived, and a grand-nephew of Lord Thurlow continued to enjoy £11,000 a year from a Chancery sinecure until his death in 1874.

One other event of the year—the death of the Princess Charlotte of Wales, who had been married in May, 1816, to Leopold of Saxe-Coburg, afterwards King of the

Belgians, must be recorded. The Princess, who was born in 1796, had been betrothed at one time to the Prince of Orange, whom she detested, but the engagement was broken off, greatly to her father's disappointment. His retaliation was not creditable to "the first gentleman in Europe." The Princess had a separate establishment at Warwick House; her father called there one afternoon to inform her that it was to be broken up, that her attendants were to be dismissed, and that henceforth she was to live with him. She retired from her father's presence, excusing herself on the ground that she was greatly upset, ran into the street, and jumping into a hackney coach, drove straight to her mother's house in Connaught Place. The Archbishop of Canterbury, who was sent to bring her back, was denied admission, but the next day, after some stipulations as to her personal liberty, she accompanied her uncle, the Duke of York, to the Prince Regent's residence, Carlton House. Another of her uncles, the Duke of Sussex, having been refused permission to see her, asked some very pertinent questions of Ministers in the House of Lords, but Lords Liverpool and Eldon refused to answer. Nothing daunted, the Duke of Sussex announced his purpose of calling attention to the subject during the following week. In the meantime, the Princess was seen riding out at Windsor, and as it was apparent that she had recovered at least some measure of freedom, the subject was allowed to drop.

In May, 1816, she was married at Carlton House to Prince Leopold. The marriage was one of mutual affection, and as the Prince bore an excellent reputation, people were pleased, and the Regent recovered, to some extent, his popularity. The young couple set up a modest but suitable establishment at Claremont, and lived there for eighteen months. In November, 1817, the Princess was prematurely confined; the child was born dead, and the mother did not survive many hours. Her death saddened the entire nation, and the mourning was universal. The very poorest people wore a piece of crape or some other token of their sorrow, and the Prince was genuinely affected by the loss of his only child. The Princess was buried in the Royal Vault at Windsor, and her cenotaph, considered by many persons a triumph of the sculptor's art, is a conspicuous object in St. George's Chapel.

The conclusion of the Peace of 1815 enabled the British Government to turn their attention to the suppression of piracy in the Mediterranean, where the vessels of the so-called States of Barbary, namely, Algeria, Morocco, Tripoli, and Tunis, had for more than three hundred years plundered and destroyed trading ships and enslaved their crews. At the beginning of the sixteenth century, Cardinal Francis Ximenes, the austere Archbishop of Toledo, and afterwards Regent of Spain, had at his cost organised an expedition against the pirates of Algiers. Regarding his attempt as a religious crusade, he led it in person, captured Oran, and opened the ports of the coast to Spanish traders. But the effects of his victory were only temporary, and in the course of a few years a Corsair, named Horuk, whose red beard obtained for him the nickname of Barbarossa, expelled the Spaniards, and once more sent out the pirates on their devastating mission. Charles V, emulous of the example of Ximenes, endeavoured to recover the authority Spain had enjoyed for a few years, but his expedition ended in complete disaster. From time to time other Christian States tried to put down these pests of the Mediterranean, but on the whole with very little success. The French once succeeded in burning Algiers, and in 1655 our own Robert Blake destroyed a fleet at Tunis, and frightened the Dey of Algiers to come to terms. But these successes had no permanent effect on the pirates, who continued to terrorise the Western Mediterranean, and some parts of the Atlantic. Readers of Robinson Crusoe will remember that in his

earlier days his ship was taken between the coast of Africa and the Canary Islands, and he and the rest of the crew were carried as prisoners to Sallée.

During the French war, owing to our possession of Minorca and Gibraltar, and to the strength of our fleet, the Dey of Algiers respected the English flag, and the enemies of England went so far as to assert that so long as our own trading vessels were allowed a free course, our statesmen were quite willing the pirates should do as they pleased with the vessels of other nations. Time showed the injustice of such statements, for no sooner was the general peace of Europe re-established than the British Government decided to deal at once and for ever with the organisers of piracy in North Africa. The command of the Mediterranean fleet was held by Admiral Pellew, who had seen more than forty years' service afloat; had distinguished himself in the North American and Indian Seas, and had recently been created Lord Exmouth. He was instructed early in the year 1816 to visit the coasts of Barbary, and to require the rulers of the various states to recognise the cession of the Ionian Islands to Great Britain; to make peace with Sardinia and Naples, and to abolish Christian slavery. The Dey of Algiers, and the Beys of Tunis and Tripoli accepted two of these conditions without demur, but as regarded slavery the Dey pleaded that the consent of the Sultan of Turkey must be signified before it could be abolished, and it was agreed that an ambassador should be sent to Constantinople in a British vessel for the purpose of obtaining the Sultan's consent. Hostilities were thereupon suspended for three months, and Lord Exmouth sailed to England.

The English admiral was scarcely out of sight when a fresh outrage occurred. Several Italian and other vessels were at Bona, carrying on the Coral fishery under the protection of the British flag. As they were preparing to celebrate the feast of the Ascension, a gun was fired from the Castle, and a large body of Algerine troops fell upon and killed the terrified coral fishers; the British flag was torn down, and the house of the British Vice-Consul was plundered.

It is not certain that the Dey was personally responsible for this breach of the peace, but the British Government, as soon as tidings came to London, decided that it was too serious an affront to be overlooked, and Exmouth was ordered to Algiers with clear instructions to obtain effectual security from the Dey, for the future protection of British subjects and of all others concerned in Algerian trade. The Admiral was invited to name his own force, and having quite recently inspected the city and its fortifications, he persisted that five ships of the line, with five frigates, and as many bomb vessels were all that he needed. The little fleet was quickly prepared and set sail at the beginning of August.

At Gibraltar he fell in with Admiral Capellen and a Dutch fleet. Capellen offered to join in the expedition, and as news had arrived of the extraordinary defensive measures the Dey was taking, Exmouth gladly accepted the proposal. Early in the morning of the 27th of August, the united English and Dutch fleets arrived before Algiers, and an officer was at once despatched to make four principal demands of the Dey, namely: The immediate surrender (without ransom) of all Christian slaves, the restitution of the ransom paid for some Italian prisoners, a declaration that future prisoners of war should be properly treated, and the conclusion of peace with the Netherlands. At two in the afternoon, the boat which had conveyed the officer who was instructed to make these demands was seen to be coming back to the fleet with a signal flying that the Dey had given no answer. A light breeze had now sprung up, and Exmouth decided to lose no time in attacking the city. He led the fleet towards the

Mole close under the enemy's batteries, and Admiral Capellen took the Dutch ships towards the southern defences of the city. An awful silence preceded the battle, which was broken by the firing of a signal gun from the Mole. To this Exmouth's ship, the "Queen Charlotte," answered by discharging a broadside so effectively delivered, that five hundred men were killed or wounded, and the batteries at the head of the Mole were destroyed. The battle was continued until ten at night, and by that time most of the fortifications were in ruins, and half the city of Algiers, and all the Algerian navy, had been destroyed. Taking advantage of a slight breeze from the land, the allied fleets withdrew until morning to repair the damage to their ships before renewing the attack.

Further hostilities were happily unnecessary, for after a parley the Dey consented to Exmouth's demands. The enslaved Christians were at once set free. They were for the most part Italians, and as soon as they learnt to whom they were indebted for their liberty they raised loud cheers for the King of England, whom in their gratitude they called "the eternal father," and for the English admiral, who had delivered them from a second hell. "Seldom hath victory given a joy like this":—

When the delivered slave
Revisits once again his own dear home,
And tells of all his sufferings past
And blesses Exmouth's name.

The untimely death of Princess Charlotte caused attention to be directed to the desirability of considering the prospects of the succession. At the beginning of 1818 there was no living legitimate grandchild of the king. The Regent was separated from his wife, the Duke and Duchess of York were childless, the Duke of Cumberland, who was intensely unpopular, had been married two years, but had as yet no child. The Duke of Sussex was morganatically married to Lady Augusta Murray, but their children could not succeed to the throne. The Dukes of Clarence, Kent, and Cambridge were bachelors, but on the death of their niece, the Princess Charlotte, they took to themselves wives with surprising rapidity. The Duke of Clarence married Adelaide of Saxe Leiningen; the Duke of Kent, Victoria, widow of the Prince of Leiningen, and sister of Prince Leopold of Coburg; and the Duke of Cambridge a Hessian Princess. The only issue of the second of these three marriages is our present sovereign Queen Victoria, who was born in Kensington Palace, on May 24th, 1819, a few months before the death of her grandfather, George III.

One other important event in the history of the royal family occurred in 1818—the death of Queen Charlotte in her seventy-fifth year at Kew Palace. Her character has already been described in these pages,* and her death had little or no effect upon the country, save that as she was the guardian of the person of the King, it was necessary to appoint a successor in that office. The Duke of York was accordingly intrusted by Parliament with the care of his father, and was rewarded with an addition of £10,000 a year to his income for the very light duties which thereupon devolved upon him. Mr. Tierny, in the House of Commons, boldly resisted the grant as unnecessary and excessive, but it was voted by a large majority, and the Duke received this enormous sum to cover the expenses incurred in paying an occasional visit to Windsor.

The year 1818 was marked by the death of two other notable persons. Sir Samuel Romilly, an able upright lawyer, of Huguenot descent, perished by his own hand in November. His wife, to whom he was devotedly attached, had died on October 29th, and

* See page 7.

the loss so affected him as to destroy his reason. He had been Solicitor-General in the Ministry of "All the Talents" in 1806, but his chief claim to be remembered rests upon his active opposition to slavery, and to the tyrannical proposals of Lord Liverpool's Administration, and above all, to his efforts to improve the criminal law. Session after session he introduced Bills with this object into the House of Commons, and though generally defeated in his humane attempts, he did not toil altogether in vain, for after his death others entered upon his labours and reaped the harvest.

Lord Ellenborough, Chief Justice of the King's Bench, also died in 1818, shortly after his retirement from an office he had filled with ability for sixteen years. His death was, it is said, hastened by the mortification he experienced at the acquittal of William Hone, a bookseller, who had been tried before him for libel in parodying the litany.

KEW PALACE.
Where Queen Charlotte died.

Hone's "Every Day Book," "Table Book," and "Year Book," contain rich stores of miscellaneous information upon which succeeding writers have liberally drawn, but these works were not published until many years after his trial, and some of his earlier publications were certainly open to serious objection. His "Reformers' Register," published for seven months in 1817, contained many brilliant squibs, caricatures by George Cruickshank, and some parodies of parts of the prayer book which the Government considered profane. He was first put on his trial before Justice Abbott, who treated him with that consideration which usually characterises English judges, and was acquitted. Had the Attorney-General been wise, he would have withdrawn the other charges against Hone, but it was decided to go on with them, and the Chief Justice was brought down in the hope that his influence would induce the jury to bring in a verdict of guilty. In his

opening address at the second trial, the Attorney-General quoted one of the objectionable passages of the parody, but instead of provoking disgust, the quotation caused everybody in Court to laugh. The Attorney-General alleged that the passage in question was an insult to religion, and Lord Ellenborough went out of his way to lay down that it was an impious and profane libel. Happily the question was for the jury to decide and they acquitted Hone. Still unsatisfied, the Attorney-General proceeded with a third indictment, but with no better success. The sturdy jury, unmoved by the strong asseverations of the Council for the prosecution, once more acquitted Hone, and thereby asserted the liberty of the press. Hone was set at liberty and a liberal subscription was raised for his benefit, and Ellenborough went home to retire from office, and to die in a few months.

In the Parliamentary Session of 1818 the Ministers announced their intention of repealing the suspension of the Habeas Corpus Act of the previous year, and the Opposition made use of the opportunity thus afforded to discuss recent disturbances and to denounce the arbitrary conduct of public affairs. Ministers indeed so far recognised that they had exceeded their powers that they brought in a Bill of indemnity, which gave rise to further discussion, but the orators of the Opposition could not prevent the Government from getting what they wanted. More secret Committees were appointed, to whom were referred more secret papers presented in green bags, and the Committee came to the conclusion that the information laid before them fully justified the course that had been taken, a conclusion generally anticipated, and as generally scorned. The distress of 1816-17 was passing away and the national finances were recovering their equilibrium. The debts of Great Britain and Ireland had been amalgamated in 1817, which tended to the simplification of the accounts, and on the whole, the task of the Chancellor of the Exchequer, in framing his budget, was not difficult. Two extraordinary grants were made this year. An amount of £400,000 was voted to the Spanish Government to enable them to compensate their subjects for losses incurred by the abolition of the slave trade ; and £1,000,000 was raised by Exchequer bills for building new churches. Very little objection was raised to the latter proposal, though much was said upon the question whether the new buildings should be plain or ornamental. It never seems to have occurred to anybody that the Church of England should have exerted herself to find the money needed to supply additional church room in places where it was undoubtedly needed. In 1818, dissenters, who very reasonably objected to be taxed for the erection of churches they would never enter, and from the pulpits of which they might expect to be denounced as schismatics, had no voice in Parliament, and could only suffer in silence. It was estimated that the grant, supplemented by contributions from other sources, would secure the building of one hundred new churches, and however grave the objections to the application of public money to such purposes, the object in view was in everyway commendable. In consequence of the grant, new churches were built at St. Luke's, Chelsea, and in other London parishes. Parliament was prorogued and dissolved early in June ; and at the ensuing general election, the Ministers lost thirty or forty seats. Among the defeated candidates was Sir William Curtis,* an alderman of London, which he had represented for 28 years, and the supposed author of the cockney saying that "wine, weal, and winegar make werry good wittles."

The year 1818 had been so generally prosperous that when the new Parliament met in January of the next year, the tone of the Regent's speech was highly congratulatory. Men remembered how, three years before, Ministers had indulged in similar congratulations, and how events had falsified their complacency, and those who were

* See page 196.

acquainted with the state of trade had only too much reason to fear a recurrence of disasters. One of the first questions to be faced was the resumption of cash payments, which had been partially effected two years earlier. It was now decided to refer the subject, confessedly an intricate and difficult one, to a Secret Committee, and of that committee Mr. Peel was appointed chairman. Peel had been some years in Parliament, and in 1810 had been placed in a subordinate office, from which he was transferred in 1813 to the Chief Secretaryship for Ireland. He was elected in 1817 to a seat for the University of Oxford, and, a little later, gave up the Secretaryship, probably because he was tired of it, though the real reason for his retirement has never been clearly explained. He was now at leisure, and though professing to have a mind open to conviction upon currency questions, it is hardly probable Ministers would have recommended him for the chairmanship of the Committee had they not supposed his views were in agreement with those of his father, the first Sir Robert Peel, who was a firm supporter of a

Photo. *F. G. O. Stuart.*

KENSINGTON PALACE.

paper currency. In this supposition Ministers were right, but the proceedings of the Committee compelled Mr. Peel to consider the subject in all its bearings, and he not only came to the conclusion that a paper currency was unsafe, and that cash payments should be wholly resumed, but he carried his colleagues with him, and their report recommended the adoption of a plan under which the Bank of England would give cash, or bullion, in exchange for its notes until May, 1823, when it would be bound to give cash in all cases. Bills were passed to carry out this arrangement, and the Bank of England was enabled to anticipate the time fixed by law for the complete resumption of cash payment, which was actually effected in May, 1821. Peel's successful negociations drew attention to his ability as a financier, and placed him in the regard of the House of Commons second only to Canning. The fact that Bank of England notes are always exchangeable for gold has had no slight effect in placing British trade on a sound and secure basis, and in making London the chief mart of the world.

It is not recorded, and it really does not matter, how far Vansittart, the blundering Chancellor of the Exchequer, really agreed with an arrangement so totally opposed to the views he had always advocated, and, as far as possible, enforced. Indeed, he seemed like many other people, quite incapable of understanding the merits of the question. For years he insisted on maintaining the delusive Sinking Fund, and borrowed large sums for the purpose of paying off others. This year he arrived at the conclusion that the budgets should be so framed as to produce an annual surplus of £3,000,000. To carry out this idea he was obliged to propose additional taxation, and to the great alarm of the City of London, and the woollen manufacturers, he raised the tax on imported wool from 6/8 to 56s. a hundredweight. To alleviate, to some extent, the distress of the working-classes, the existence of which the Government was at last compelled to recognise, £50,000 was voted to assist working-men to emigrate. It would have been better to have allowed the emigrants a free choice of their future home, but it was feared many would select the United States, and assistance was therefore restricted to those who chose to go to one of our colonies.

The subject of Parliamentary Reform will be dealt with in a later chapter, but in order to understand rightly the events of the summer and autumn of 1819, it must be mentioned here that a resolution pledging the House of Commons to consider the state of the representation, was rejected by one hundred and fifty-three to fifty-eight votes. This very decisive majority stirred the friends of reform to action, and large meetings were held at Smithfield, Leeds, and at other places.

Tragic consequences attended the Manchester meeting on August 16th. Early in the year, the borough reeve and constables had been invited to call a meeting for the purpose of petitioning Parliament against the corn laws, and on their refusal a meeting was held in St. Peter's Fields, then an open space, but built upon long since, and destined later in the year to attain tragic notoriety as the scene of the so-called Peterloo massacre. The January meeting, at which Orator Hunt presided and delivered one of many inflammatory speeches, passed off quietly enough, though a few days later Hunt was assaulted in the Manchester Theatre by some cavalry officers, who alleged that he had hissed "God save the King." During the summer, meetings, advocating reform, were held in other towns, and many of those who took part in them were regularly drilled for the purpose, as they said, of ensuring order and regularity of movement, as they marched in procession to the place of meeting. Naturally, the Government viewed these drillings with suspicion, and when a great meeting was fixed for the 16th of August, troops were moved upon Manchester. On that day tradesmen along the route of the procession shut their shops, and well-to-do people kept indoors. But the procession caused no disturbance, notwithstanding the provocative inscriptions on some of the banners carried through the streets, and fifty or sixty thousand people reached St. Peter's Fields without hindrance. The County magistrates had assembled in a house overlooking the fields, and as soon as Hunt began to speak ordered his arrest. The chief constable pointed out that this was impossible, whereupon the magistrates sent for the Manchester yeomanry and the 15th Hussars, who were close at hand. The Yeomanry arrived first and allowed themselves to disperse among the crowd, who groaned and hissed. As soon as the Hussars came on the scene the magistrates directed the Colonel to charge the crowd, and he obeyed these orders too effectively. The soldiers did their duty as humanely as they could, using the flat sides, not the edge, of their swords, but cavalry cannot charge a mob without inflicting injuries. Six persons were killed, including an unfortunate constable, some hundreds were wounded

or bruised, and the ground was covered with hats, shoes, sticks and musical instruments. Hunt surrendered himself to the authorities, the meeting came to an abrupt conclusion, and the next morning the town was perfectly quiet, but the memory of the "Peterloo Massacre" long lingered in the recollection of Manchester people.

Ministers, immediately on receipt of the news, commended the action of the magistrates, and Lord Eldon declared that the meeting was illegal, though many lawyers thought differently. The Common Council of London passed, by a large majority, a resolution condemning the magistrates, and affirming the legality of the meeting, and Lord Fitzwilliam, the Lord Lieutenant of the County of York, signed a request to the Sheriff to call a meeting to consider the question. The Ministry thought proper to dismiss him from office, but were so alarmed at his action, which was followed by similar

WINDSOR CASTLE.
After Hunt's Painting in the Tate Gallery.

actions on the part of other Whig noblemen, that they summoned Parliament to meet to consider the state of the country. Nearly a year after the massacre, Hunt and others were put on their trial, convicted, and sentenced to various terms of imprisonment.

Parliament met on the 23rd of November and Ministers lost no time in introducing six Bills for the repression of disorder and restraining public liberty. It is unnecessary to encumber these pages with details of these arbitrary laws. Their passage was strenuously resisted in both Houses, but Ministers were, no doubt, seriously alarmed, and induced others to share their fears. The eloquence of the Opposition, which was not quite united in objecting to some of the Bills, was all in vain; the Bills speedily became law, but happily some of the worst of them were temporary measures, and lapsed in the course of a few years.

Before concluding the story of the reign of George III. a brief reference must be made to the Congress held at Aix-la-Chapelle in 1818. That ancient and dreary city,

which had already seen the meetings of two International Congresses, the first in 1668, and the second in 1748, once more witnessed a gathering of European sovereigns and diplomatists. The Emperors of Austria and Russia and the King of Prussia attended in person, while France and England sent Ministers, the Duke of Wellington and Lord Castlereagh being the English representatives. The question to be considered by the Congress was the complete evacuation of France by the foreign troops, and the amount of the indemnity that country should pay. Owing chiefly to the efforts of Wellington, it was decided to withdraw the troops almost immediately, and the indemnity was fixed at two hundred and sixty five millions of francs. During the sittings of the Congress, Aix was the scene of much gaiety, and a somewhat incongruous multitude took up their temporary abode there. Sir Thomas Lawrence came to paint the portraits of the monarchs; Madame Catalani to sing to them; Thomas Clarkson to try to persuade the Emperor of Russia to join in the anti-slavery movement, and, stranger still, Robert Owen to advocate his plan for the reformation of society. The Emperor Alexander received both Clarkson and Owen with courtesy, but it does not appear that either made any impression upon him.

The year 1820 began with two deaths in the Royal Family. On the 23rd of January, the Duke of Kent died at Sidmouth, leaving one child, a little girl eight months old, destined in seventeen years to become our Queen. Six days later the King died at Windsor, in his eighty-second year. Since the beginning of his last illness Shakespeare's Lear had not been played at the theatres, but the news of his death brought to many lips a quotation from the last scene of the tragedy:—

> Vex not his ghost: O, let him pass, he hates him,
> That would upon the rack of this tough world
> Stretch him out longer. *

* Lear, Act. V. Scene III.

Landseer.

PEACE.

CHAPTER XV.

GEORGE IV. AND HIS TIMES.

THE Prince Regent ascended the Throne as George IV. on the 29th of January, 1820. He was then in his fifty-eighth year, and was no more popular as King than he had been as Prince of Wales or as Regent. No political change was made, or expected, when he assumed the royal dignity, and the Tory Government went on as before. In his first address as King he told his Council "he trusted that experience of the past might satisfy all classes of his people, that it would ever be his anxious endeavour to promote their prosperity and happiness, as well as to maintain unimpaired the religion, laws, and liberties of the Kingdom;" but, of course, no part of the community was satisfied that he would do anything of the kind.

A fit of the gout prevented him from attending the funeral of his father, and "domestic afflictions" postponed his coronation until July of the following year.

GEORGE IV.

Within a month of his accession the dangerous state of the country was revealed on the discovery of a diabolical plot for the murder of all the Cabinet Ministers, who were to dine together on the 23rd of February, at the house of Lord Harrowby, in Grosvenor Square. A band of conspirators, under the leadership of one Arthur Thistlewood—a desperate republican of the baser sort—were wont to meet at a house in Cato Street, in the Edgware Road,* their programme being to plot mischief against the constituted authorities, to overthrow the Government, to release all prisoners, and to set fire to London!

When the announcement in the press, of a dinner of Cabinet Ministers caught the eye of Thistlewood he is reported to have said, "There hasn't been a dinner for a long time, so there's no doubt there will be fourteen or sixteen Ministers present; it will be a rare haul to despatch them altogether!" He then proceeded to lay down the plan for a horrible massacre. Happily there was a betrayer among their number, named Edwards, and when the conspirators met in the hayloft of the stables in Cato Street, armed to the teeth, and ready to start on the bloodthirsty attack, constables and guards fell upon them and frustrated their plans. On being searched, not even a shilling was found in possession of the whole party. Thistlewood and four of the most prominent conspirators were tried and executed, and the rest were sentenced to transportation for life. So ended the Cato Street conspiracy; but it left in the minds of Ministers and people a feeling of great restlessness and alarm.

* Now Homer Street, Marylebone.

"Curses, like young chickens, come home to roost," and the King had soon to reap some of the bitter fruits of his earlier sowing. In order to pay his debts and satisfy his father, he had put away his wife and married Caroline of Brunswick; they quarrelled, and separated, and since 1814 she had been absent from England. Immediately on the accession of her husband, she returned to claim her rights as Queen-Consort. Neither the King nor his Ministers expected her arrival, but, on the evening of the day she landed, a message from the King was delivered to both Houses of Parliament, together with papers respecting her alleged misconduct while abroad. The poor, hunted creature, after she had been excluded from the Court at the commencement of the Regency, had been driven from her home and had travelled abroad, eventually settling in a part of Italy under Austrian government. Commissioners were sent to Milan to gather evidence against her, and to construct mountains out of molehills; the King believed all the reports he heard against her, and caused her name to be omitted from the Liturgy as "past praying for,"* and now the spirit of the insulted woman was aroused and she returned to assert herself.

"CONSTABLES AND GUARDS FELL UPON THEM."

Although the Court shunned her, the people did not, and on her arrival 200,000 persons received her with shouts of joy. "In their sense of justice," said William Cobbett,† "they went back to the time when she was in fact turned out of her husband's house, with a child in her arms, without blame of any sort having been imputed to her; they compared what they had *heard* of the wife with what they had *seen* of the husband; and they came to their determination accordingly; so far as related to the question of guilt or innocence they cared not a straw; but they took a large view of the matter; they went over her whole history; they determined that she had been wronged, and they resolved to uphold her."

Lord Liverpool was forced to bring forward, on the 5th of July, a Bill for her divorce and degradation, and on the 17th of August she was brought to trial. In the interval she had addressed her "Letter to the King," in which, referring to her past wrongs, she had

*At the trial of the Queen, when allusion was made to the omission of her name from the Liturgy, it was said that "it was included in the General Prayer," when Mr. Denham, her Counsel, remarked "that if it was included in any general prayer, it was in that for "all who are desolate and oppressed."

†History of George IV.

said :—"Even on the slave mart, the cries of 'O, my mother;' 'O, my child!' have prevented a separation of the victims of avarice; but your advisers, more inhuman than slave dealers, remorselessly tore the mother from the child. . . . Your Court was the scene, not of polished manners and refined intercourse, but of low intrigue and scurrility, in which spies, bacchanalian tale-bearers, and foul conspirators swarmed."

Alluding to her approaching trial by the House of Lords she wrote :—"To regard such a body as a Court of Justice, would be to calumniate that sacred name; and for me to suppress the expression of my opinion, would be to lend myself to my own destruction, as well as to an imposition on the nation and the world. I protest against this species of trial; I demand it in a court, where the jurors are taken impartially from among the people, and the proceedings are open and fair. I will not, except compelled by force, submit to any sentence not pronounced by a Court of Justice."

THE HOUSE OF LORDS DURING TRIAL OF QUEEN CAROLINE, 1820.

Popular feeling continued entirely in the Queen's favour, and addresses were sent to her from all the chief cities, towns, and villages of the United Kingdom. She took a mansion at Hammersmith, on the banks of the Thames, called Brandenburg House, and here constant processions, sometimes four or five a day, each containing on an average some thousands of people, came to present addresses, until she was obliged to restrict herself to certain days for receiving them.

During this period the King had a bad time of it, as the crowds made a point of stopping outside his palace, and in shouts "sufficient to have reached him if he had been in the clouds, they made him acquainted with their way of thinking, and their resolution with regard to him."

Notwithstanding the repeated protests of the Queen, her trial commenced and lasted for forty-five days. At the end of that time the Bill of Pains and Penalties was read a

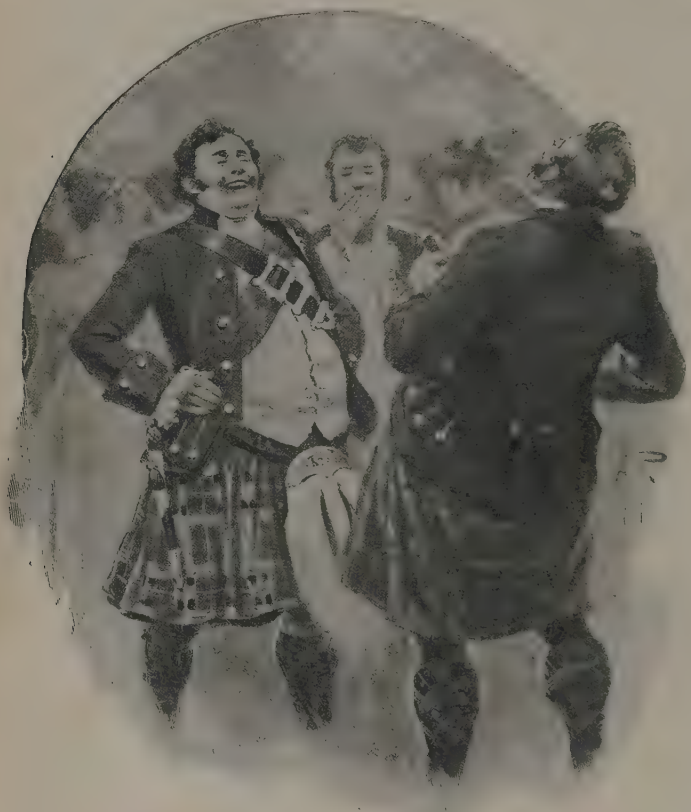
third time, and as the Ministers could only obtain a majority of nine to vote that she was guilty, the Bill was abandoned, and a domestic war, which George IV. had for twenty-five years carried on against his Consort, ended in defeat and disgrace.

It would have been well for the Queen if she had at once retired into privacy; instead, she went in State to St. Paul's to return thanks for her victory, and by this and other acts her popularity sank almost as rapidly as it had risen. In July, 1821, at the coronation of the King, she rashly attempted to obtain admission to Westminster Abbey, although her application to be crowned like her royal predecessors had been refused. She arrived in her state carriage drawn by six bay horses, but every door was closed against her, and she drove back to Brandenburg House humiliated and defeated. She heard the cheers—and some hisses—of the mob for the last time; the excitement brought on an alarming illness which terminated fatally on the 7th of August. Her ruling passion was strong in death; she ordered that her remains should be carried to a burial place in her native land, and that on her tomb should be inscribed:—"Here lies Caroline of Brunswick, the injured Queen of England."

"EVERY DOOR WAS CLOSED AGAINST HER."

The news of the death of the Queen reached George when he was on his way to Dublin "eating goose pie, and drinking whisky so abundantly that when he arrived he was in the last stage of intoxication." On the steps of the Vice-regal Lodge he made a wild speech, in which he said—"This is one of the happiest days of my life; my heart has always been Irish; from the day it first beat, I have loved Ireland; rank, station, honours, are nothing; but to feel that I live in the hearts of my Irish subjects, is to me the most exalted happiness!"

His next visit was to Hanover,* where he went through the ceremony of another coronation, and in the following year he paid a visit to Scotland. He landed at Leith on the 15th of August, and it was estimated that three hundred thousand people—a seventh of the whole population of Scotland—were present in Edinburgh to welcome him for the city had not seen Royalty in State since the days of the Scottish monarchs. The festivities—most of them under the guidance of Sir Walter Scott, who, slightly lame, was seen going about everywhere—were continued for some time, and at a Levée in Holyrood Palace, the King, in compliment to the country, appeared in complete Highland costume, made of the royal Stuart tartan. Sir William Curtis,† a very portly gentleman, with whom the King was on intimate terms, also appeared in the same costume, and when he and the King met they burst out laughing at one another in uncontrollable merriment. The costume did not suit the figure of either of them.



THE KING AND SIR W. CURTIS.

While the King was in Scotland, Lord Castlereagh (who had succeeded to his father's title, as Marquis of Londonderry) committed suicide in a fit of insanity, at North Cray, in Kent. This was the death blow to old Toryism, and led to important changes in the Cabinet, and the adoption of "a line of policy more generous, more favourable to the cause of general liberty, and therefore more agreeable to the spirit of the British Constitution than that which our Government had for some time pursued." Mr. Canning became Secretary for Foreign Affairs and leader of the House of Commons; Lord Sidmouth ceased to be Home Secretary, and Mr. Peel (afterwards Sir Robert Peel) succeeded to that office; while Mr. William Huskisson, a man of liberal views, became President of the Board of Trade.

* From Hanover the King went to Brussels, where he was met by the Duke of Wellington, who conducted him over the Field of Waterloo. The Duke explained to the King all the movements in the battle, and pointed out to him the spots where men of note had fallen on both sides. "His Majesty took it very coolly," the Duke used to say, "he never asked me a single question, nor said one word, until I showed him where Lord Anglesea's leg was buried, and then he burst into tears." Gleig's Life of Wellington.

†See page 188.

The most important affairs of the next few years outside England were the recognition of the new states of South America by sending Consuls to them in 1823; a sharp contest with the Ashantees in 1824; and the commencement in April of that year of the Burmese War, which terminated in 1826, giving the British a considerable accession of territory on the eastern coast of the Bay of Bengal; while about the same time the siege and capture by Lord Combermere, of Bhurtpoor, a fortress of immense strength—which had been held by a Rajah in cordial alliance with our Government, but whose son had raised a revolt, causing the interference of the British—shed a lustre upon our arms. In 1826 a body of troops was sent to Portugal to support the Princess Regent and the Constitution established by Don Pedro, against the hostile attempts of the Spanish Government, with the result that the rebellion was put down and tranquility restored.

One of the most interesting events of the reign was the struggle of the Greeks to gain their independence and to throw off the merciless oppression of the Turks. In vain they had looked to the European states for assistance, and at last they determined in open revolt, to fight their own battle and burst the bonds that bound them.

Throughout Europe the unequal contest was watched with growing interest, and from all countries young and enthusiastic men, who viewed it as a just revolt and believed that its success would restore the classical ages of Greece, threw themselves into the conflict as volunteers. Among them was our famous poet, Lord Byron, who was ready to lay down his life for their liberty, but who died in the fever-stricken swamps of Missolonghi with his sword unsheathed, "leaving in his works a noble legacy of song on the old glories of the land he longed to save." Another was the daring and heroic Cochrane, who sought to organise a Greek navy.

LORD BYRON.
From a Sketch by Count D'Orsay, 1823.

For nearly seven years (1821-1827) the Turks butchered the Greeks without mercy, selling into slavery the captives that fell into their hands. Yet, notwithstanding the fact that the Sultan sought aid of his powerful vassal, Mehemet Ali, the Pasha of Egypt, who sent a large force into the Morea under the command of his son, Ibrahim Pasha, Greece still struggled on. At length, the horrible excesses of the Turks and Egyptians so shocked the moral sense of the nations that the European powers felt bound to interfere, and a treaty for the pacification of Greece was concluded in London between England, Russia and France, by which it was stipulated that Greece should enjoy a limited independence under the nominal sovereignty of Turkey. The Sultan, however,

refused to allow the negotiations to proceed, whereupon the allies determined upon coercion, and their allied fleets, under the command of Sir Edward Codrington, entered the Bay of Navarino. There they found the Turkish and Egyptian fleets, under Ibrahim Pasha, ready for battle, although no declaration of war had been made. An accidental shot—as some supposed—fired from a Turkish ship slew an English officer bearing a flag of truce. This was the signal for general action; the fight was furious; the Turco-Egyptian fleet was annihilated, and seven thousand men perished. But the heroic Greeks were free, their independence was practically secured; and in 1829 it was acknowledged by Turkey.

CHISWICK HOUSE.

While this struggle had been going on, death had been busy at home. In 1827 the Duke of York ("the Soldiers' Friend") who stood pledged to oppose the claims of the Catholics, died, just when the great struggle for Emancipation was entering its final and successful stage, and the oppressive Test and Corporation Acts had been repealed.* In February, 1827, Lord Liverpool was seized with a fit of apoplexy, which caused his death a few months later. He was succeeded in April by the brilliant, witty, and able George

* See page 115

Canning, who had long been a distinguished advocate of the Catholic claims, of liberty generally, and of progressive legislation. He signed the treaty for the settlement of the Greek struggle in July. It was the last of his public acts, and he did not live to see the realisation of the hopes he had entertained of their Independence since the day when, as a mere youth, he wrote a lament on the "Slavery of Greece." When he came into power all the members of the Cabinet opposed to concession, resigned in a body. This created a strain upon him which his health was unable to bear. Appointed to the Premiership in April, he ceased from active duty in July, worn out and broken down, and on the 7th of August he died in the very same room, in the house of the Duke of Devonshire at Chiswick, where another great statesman, Charles James Fox, had expired. He was buried in Westminster Abbey at the foot of Pitt's grave.

Canning was succeeded in the Premiership by Viscount Goderich ("Goody Goderich," as he was nicknamed); whose "whimpering docility" made him the laughing stock of many, and of whom it was said that when, after holding office for 142 days, he tendered his resignation, the King told him "to go home and take care of himself." "Goderich began to cry, and his Majesty offered him his handkerchief." *

The Duke of Wellington then became Prime Minister, and retained his office until after the death of George IV.

During the reign of George IV., important changes were made in many laws that had long stood in urgent need of revision. When Mr. Huskisson became President of the Board of Trade, in 1823, he introduced his great reforms for assisting manufacturers by the reduction of taxes levied on the introduction of raw material, such as silk and wool, by modifying the Navigation Acts, which had made it unlawful to bring any goods to Britain except in British ships, and by removing other needless restrictions. He also succeeded in repealing a vexatious law by which the wages of Spitalfields weavers were fixed by the magistrates; he abolished the restrictions on workmen travelling from one part of the country to another in search of employment; and, most important of all, he repealed the Combination Acts and set workmen free to form trades' unions, and to bargain on fair terms with their masters for wages. The effect of the relief thus afforded was a great increase in trade, which however came so suddenly that it led to overtrading and to reckless speculation.

The commercial crisis of 1825 was mainly consequent upon the creation of paper money by public companies, to be repaid in gold. Wild joint-stock companies were floated, and over £17,500,000 was subscribed for objects as valueless as the South Sea Bubble, with the consequence that the companies came into the "Gazette" without a solvent subscriber or an available shilling. Several London banks stopped payment, and then came panic. Seventy county banks either totally failed, or suspended payment, and the year ended in greater excitement and distress in the commercial world than the nation had ever witnessed before. This retarded general progress and led to the resumption of riots and destruction of machinery.

The beginning of 1826 gave little hope of more prosperous times and even in 1829 trade had not yet recovered itself, neither had commercial enterprise regained its elasticity. A bad harvest in the autumn, and a winter of unusual severity, brought about much suffering and misery to the poorer classes. It was reported by a committee appointed to find out the condition of working people in the neighbourhood of Huddersfield, "that within the several townships engaged in fancy business, there were thirteen thousand

* He became Earl of Ripon and subsequently held, with credit, several important offices.

individuals, who had not more than twopence-halfpenny per day to live on, out of which they had to pay for the wear and tear of their looms!"

THE RIGHT HON. ROBERT PEEL, 1828.

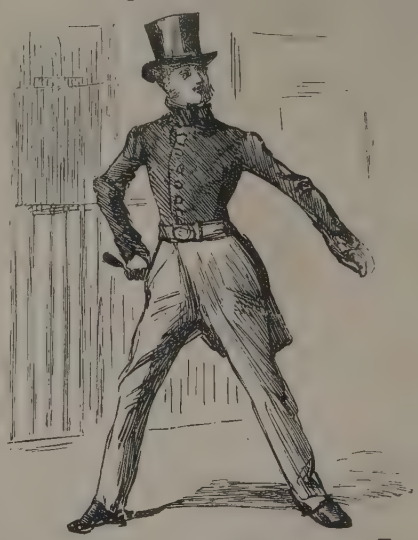
of many of its sanguinary enactments, and also increased the certainty of punishment. Later (1830) an Act was passed for substituting the punishment of transportation for that of death in cases of forgery. In 1823 an Act abolished the ancient and barbarous custom of burying persons, who had committed *felo-de-se* in cross roads, with a stake driven through their bodies.

In 1829-30, Mr. Peel brought into force his new police establishment. "The whole Metropolitan district was formed into five local divisions, each division into eight sections, and each section into eight beats; the limits of all being clearly defined and distinguished by letters and numbers; the force itself was divided into companies, each company having one superintendent, four inspectors, sixteen sergeants, and one hundred and forty-four police constables;

Soon, however, the irresistible spirit of commerce asserted itself, discovering new powers and new provinces, and benefitting by the principles of free trade.

About this time the attention of Parliament and the whole country was almost monopolised by the Catholic Emancipation question, and, in a lesser degree, by the repeal of the Test and Corporation Acts, by which Nonconformists were admitted to full political rights—both of which subjects have been dealt with elsewhere. *

Mr. Peel carried on, and completed, what Sir Samuel Romilly had begun, and Sir James Mackintosh and others had continued; and caused five Statutes to be passed, amending the criminal laws, and exempting from capital punishment about a hundred felonies. This purified the Statute Book



A PEELER.

* See pages 116-117.

being also sub-divided into sixteen parts, each consisting of a sergeant and nine men." Incalculable as the boon was in the repression of crime, the Corporation of the City of London could not be persuaded, until several years afterwards, to follow such an example, and give up their vested interests in the old system of watchmen. The Police system, as remodelled by Sir Robert Peel in 1829, led the way to the adoption of a system for the whole country, which is still in force.

Early in 1830 George IV. fell ill; his disorder was pronounced to be ossification of the valves of the heart, and bulletins were issued. He had for some time been living in seclusion, and on the 25th of June he died. During his regency, although he himself had little to do with the matter, his name was associated with the most splendid triumphs that adorn our annals, by the marvellous progress of intellect, and by remarkable improvements in the liberal arts. With fine abilities and charming manners, England might have been proud of such a king, but he squandered his talents for his own gratification; alienated himself from all right-minded men; lived a disgraceful life, and died the subject of almost universal contempt. His epitaph has been written thus:—"He was a bad son, a bad husband, a bad father, a bad subject, a bad monarch, and a bad friend."

SEAL OF GEORGE IV., 1820–1830.

CHAPTER XVI.

WILLIAM IV. AND HIS TIMES.

WILLIAM HENRY, Duke of Clarence, third son of George III. (the second son, the Duke of York, having died in 1827), was immediately on the death of George IV. proclaimed King by the title of William IV. "He came to the throne," says Greville, "at the mature age of sixty-five, and was so excited by his exaltation, that he nearly went mad, and distinguished himself by a thousand eccentricities of language and conduct, though he afterwards sobered down . . . He was a good-natured, kind-hearted, and well-meaning man, and he always acted an honourable and straightforward, if not always a sound and discreet part . . . His simplicity and affability were very striking, and he looked like a respectable old admiral." He soon acquired a great popularity, and, like his father, won affection by the familiarity of his intercourse with the people, especially of the poorer classes. He was almost a complete contrast to his predecessor, whose secluded and misanthropic kind of life during his later years had estranged him from the few who were his admirers.

WILLIAM IV.

William IV. was the "Sailor King," and had held high offices in the Navy from his youth up. Of his private life, it will be remembered that in 1791 he had formed an alliance with Mrs. Jordan, which lasted for twenty years, by whom he had a family of five sons and five daughters. He was married in 1818 to Princess Adelaide, eldest daughter of the Duke of Saxe-Meiningen, by whom he had two daughters, who died in infancy.

William came to the throne at a time when dark clouds were gathering over the Continent of Europe, and within a month of his accession, a new French Revolution, known as the "Revolution of July," broke out. It was directed against the despotic King, Charles X. (who had succeeded his brother, Louis XVIII., on his death in 1824), and his Minister Polignac. The French King had issued certain Ordinances to bring in a system of government similar to that of Prussia; to abolish the liberty of the Press, to cancel the existing system of representation, and to make arrangements for setting up a Chamber of Deputies, who would be blindly obedient to the royal will. The people of Paris rose *en masse* against these unconstitutional decrees, and a short and sudden

revolution took place. The "Three Days of Paris" ended in the defeat of the troops, the exclusion of Charles X with all his descendants from the throne, the transfer of the Crown to a distant cousin of the King, Louis Philippe, Duke of Orleans, with a change of title from "King of France" to "King of the French," and the establishment of a popular Government. Charles X. took refuge in England, and Polignac was apprehended and condemned to perpetual imprisonment in the Fortress of Ham, where, however, he was only detained until 1836.

The triumph of the insurgents in Paris created an influence that extended far and wide. A month later saw the commencement of a similar revolution in Belgium. The inhabitants of Brussels were in open insurrection against local taxes; having met with success, they extended their views to the overthrow of their Government, and the separation of Belgium from the Netherlands; they repulsed the King of Holland's troops who were attacking the capital, established a provisional Government, convoked a National Congress, and, declaring Belgium an independent State, excluded the House of Orange from the Throne. About the beginning of October, the Hereditary Prince of Orange, as Lieutenant-General of the Flemish Provinces, removed the seat of Government to Antwerp; whence he issued a proclamation, announcing that the separation of Belgium from Holland was acknowledged, and that he should take on himself the sovereignty of the former. But to this declaration no respect was paid; the King of the Netherlands was so displeased that he revoked his son's commission, and the people busied themselves about the choice of a new monarch.

The Crown of Belgium—now an independent kingdom—was conferred on Leopold, Prince of Saxe-Coburg, formerly husband of the Princess Charlotte of Wales.* To conciliate his Roman Catholic subjects and strengthen his throne, he formed a matrimonial alliance with the daughter of Louis Philippe, King of the French.

In England, the Revolutionary movement took a milder shape in the cry for Parliamentary Reform, and the first symptom of wide-spread disaffection and tendency to outbreak was "signified in the usual manner," by incendiary fires throughout the country.

When the new Parliament met in October, with a large majority of members who were in favour of reform, the Duke of Wellington aroused great popular indignation by declaring that the House of Commons did not need reform, and that he would resist all proposals for a change. As illustrating the state of feeling in the country, it may be noted that on the 7th and 9th of November, immense excitement was occasioned in the Metropolis and elsewhere by the announcement of the resolution come to by the responsible advisers of the King that he could not venture, with safety to his person, to dine at the Guildhall with the Lord Mayor and Corporation of the City of London, in consequence of the alleged discovery of a plot for his assassination.

We shall not in this place tell the story of the progress of the Reform Bill—"the greatest organic change in the British Constitution that has taken place since the Revolution of 1688"—but shall deal with it in a separate chapter. It occupied, almost to the exclusion of all other subjects, the first two years of the reign of William.

Ireland continued to be throughout this reign, as it had been for many years, one of the most difficult problems of our domestic politics, and so full have been our Parliamentary annals of attempts to minister to her wants—the result of centuries of

* The throne of Greece had been previously offered to him and refused.

misgovernment—that we have not attempted in these pages to follow in detail the constantly recurring discussion of Irish questions.*

The great measure of the Whigs, after the Reform Bill, was undoubtedly the Poor Law Amendment Act of 1834. The existing Poor Laws were pauperising and degrading, and were susceptible of gross abuses. One may be taken as an example. When in the time of the wars (1795) provisions were excessively dear, an allowance was made out of the parish fund to every labourer in proportion to the number of his family and without reference to his being employed or unemployed. Under this allowance-system, which continued long after the wars had ceased, the labourer was made to receive a part of his earnings in the form of a parish gift, and as the fund out of which it was provided was raised from the contributions of those who did not employ labourers, as well as of those who did, it followed that the labourers were degraded from the condition of honourable independence to that of parish paupers.

The gist of the law as it stood before the passing of the Amendment Act (4 & 5 Wm. IV. cap. 76) was, that every indigent person, whether a native or a foreigner, being in any district of England or Wales in which a fund was raised for the maintenance of the poor, had a right to be supplied with the necessaries of life out of that fund. By the new Act—which, with more recent statutes, still remains in force—relief is refused to the able-bodied poor, except in workhouses established on a very rigorous basis. All great social changes, however beneficial in their consequence, involve much individual suffering, and it was so in this case. The poor had been trained to rely all their lives long on ekeing out their wages by their parish pay, and when this source of revenue was suddenly stopped, it involved much hardship and discontent, while to the idle loafers who had been fed entirely at the expense of the ratepayers, it was a sorry day when they were told that unless they worked neither should they eat.

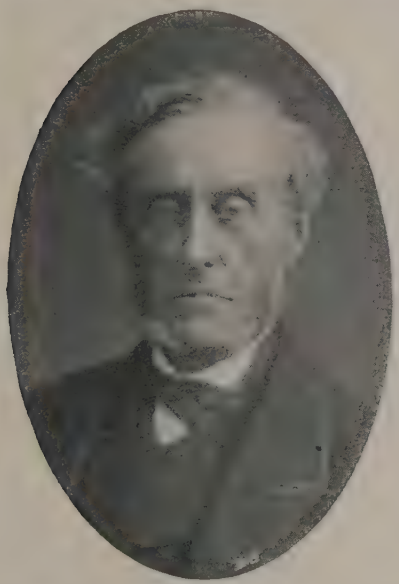
The period between 1830 and 1837 was one of great upheaval and transition: it was the time of the beginning of innumerable movements that were to culminate in the great successes of the century, many of which will be referred to in these pages at a more advanced stage of their development. Every kind of question was pressing to the front in every department of life and thought. It was a period of great religious fervour and church activity, when new schemes of philanthropy sprang up like mushrooms, when divergent theological thought was becoming a matter of every day discussion, and the man in the street was beginning to know the difference between a latitudinarian and a tractarian, or a rationalist and a ritualist. There was everywhere a restless desire for change, a universal wish to break with what had been proved to be oppressive or unworthy in the past, and a resistless eagerness in the pursuit of new things.

At that time, too, the people were beginning to realise the "stupendous grandeur of commercial enterprise, and the direct action of whole nations, as contrasted with the isolated efforts of individual energy." "We no longer see," said a writer of the day,

* While the disturbed state of Ireland was being discussed in February, 1827, a lively and effective sally was made by Mr. Sheil against Lord Lyndhurst (who happened at the very time to be sitting under the gallery) in reference to his unfortunate application of the term *aliens* to the Catholic population of Ireland. It was an obnoxious expression which had never been disavowed; and even Sir Robert Peel, though he would not adopt, dared not disapprove of it. He was only surprised that the Duke of Wellington, when he heard it, had not started up and said those aliens had done their duty. "The Duke," said Mr. Shiel, "is not a man of sudden emotions, but he ought not to have forgotten Vimiera and Badajoz, Salamanca and Toulouse, or the last glorious conflict which crowned all his former victories. On that day, when the destinies of mankind were trembling in the balance, when batteries spread slaughter over the field, and the legions of France rushed again and again to the conflict—on that day did the *aliens* flinch? No; on that day the blood of the men of England, Ireland, and Scotland, was poured out together; they fought in the same field—they died the same death—they were stretched in the same pit—their dust was commingled—the same dew of Heaven fell on the earth which covered them—the same grass sprung from the soil in which they reposed side by side; and is it to be endured, that we should be called *aliens* and strangers to that empire for which our best blood was shed?" Hughes, Vol. VI., p. 504.

"Kings, Emperors, and Conquerors, standing out in prominent relief; but merchant princes, and flourishing communities occupying their places; what in former ages was done by the great, now is done by the many, and communities have a larger and more enduring influence than Courts. As usual, Great Britain takes the lead in those enterprises which seem destined by Providence to change the face of the globe; and if her influence now be great, what will it become, when steam, completing its triumph, and sweeping away all local boundaries, shall of England, Scotland and Ireland, make one vast metropolis ?"

It was during this period that the Act was passed for the emancipation of West Indian slaves, at a cost to the nation of twenty million sterling; by another Act in the same year (1833) an annual grant of £20,000 was made in aid of elementary education which had hitherto been entirely conducted by the Church and other religious and philanthropic bodies; and still in that same year, another Act was introduced and carried by Lord Ashley (afterwards Earl of Shaftesbury), by which the cruel employment in factories of children under nine years of age, was forbidden. The reform of the Irish Church was also tackled. The Irish bishops were reduced from twenty-two to twelve, and the Irish Archbishops from four to two; while by the appointment of the Irish Church Commission the very existence of the Church Establishment in Ireland was threatened. At the same time, owing to the prevalence of crime in Ireland a severe Coercion Act was passed, which soon had the effect of quieting disorder. The alleged grievances of Dissenters were also among the subjects dealt with, resulting in a Bill for the commutation of tithes; another for the celebration of marriages by ministers not belonging to the Communion of the Church of England, and a third for the registration of births and marriages. These Bills, after considerable amendment in the Upper House, were passed and finally became laws.

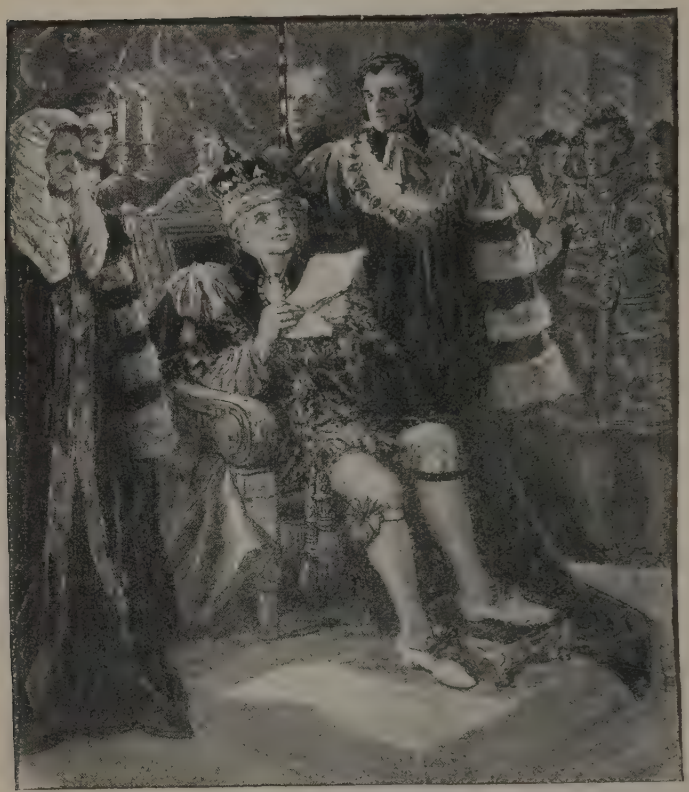


Elliot & Fry, *Photo.*
THE EARL OF SHAFTESBURY.

Another important measure (1835) was the Municipal Corporations Reform Act, by which the old corrupt system of allowing governing bodies of towns to fill up from amongst themselves any vacancies that occurred in their ranks, was swept away, and all Town Councils were to be elected by duly qualified rate-payers, who had to provide the necessary funds for local purposes. This arrangement brought about quite a revolution in provincial towns—though not in the Metropolis, for the Corporation of the City of London stood outside the Act;—it gave an education in the practice of self-government, and it removed many abuses.

While all these things were going on, there were many changes in the Ministry. The Duke of Wellington gave place to Earl Grey (1830), who was succeeded by Viscount Melbourne in 1834. He was replaced by Sir Robert Peel (1834), and was succeeded, in 1835, by Viscount Melbourne, who continued in office for six years.*

* A little incident is recorded in reference to the King's speech at the opening of Parliament, in 1836. The weather was unusually gloomy, which, added to an imperfection in the eyesight of the King, and the darkness of the House, rendered it impossible for him to read the Royal Speech with facility. He struggled on with his task, often hesitating, sometimes mistaking, and at others correcting himself. On one occasion he stuck altogether, and, after two or three ineffectual efforts to make out the word, he was obliged to give it up, when, turning to Lord Melbourne, who stood on his



WILLIAM IV. READS HIS SPEECH BY CANDLELIGHT.

Throughout his reign the genial old King retained the affectionate regard of his subjects. He was fond of going about, and was always well received. In 1835, he and the Queen paid a visit to the Duke of Wellington at Strathfieldsaye, and made a State function of a visit to Greenwich Hospital, where they were received by Sir Thomas Hardy, the companion and friend of Nelson, who conducted his royal guests through the apartments.

The "sailor King" inspected the whole arrangements for the comfort of his gallant old sea dogs, and expressed his warm approbation of all that was being done for them.

Of the rest of the acts of William IV. and all that he did, and all his might, are they not written in the book of the chronicles of Charles Greville?

Early in the spring of 1837, the health of the King began to fail, and on the 18th of May he was prevented from

DEATH OF KING WILLIAM IV.

right hand, he said, in a tone sufficiently loud to be audible in all parts of the House, "Eh, eh, what is it?" Lord Melbourne having whispered the obstructing word, the King proceeded to toil through the Speech: but by the time he got to about the middle, the librarian brought him two wax lights. He suddenly paused; then, raising his head, and looking at the Lords and Commons, he addressed them on the spur of the moment, in a perfectly distinct voice, in these terms:—

"My Lords and Gentlemen, I have hitherto not been able, from want of light, to read this speech in the way its importance deserves, but, as lights are now brought me, I will read it again from the commencement, and in a way which I trust, will command your attention." The King then began at the beginning, and read through the Speech in a manner which would have done credit to any professor of elocution.

holding a Levée at St. James's, appointed for that day. From this time his debility increased, and on June 18th, he received the Holy Communion at the hands of the Archbishop of Canterbury. It was the anniversary of the battle of Waterloo, and the King expressed an anxious desire to Dr. Chambers (his chaplain) of living over so memorable a day, nor did he forget to send a kind message to the Duke of Wellington, requesting that he would not neglect to give his annual dinner to the officers engaged in that glorious action, a celebration of the event which King William, since his accession, had not failed to honour by his presence. On the 19th, at half-past ten in the evening, he was seized with a fainting fit, and at twenty minutes past two on the following morning, peacefully passed away; the Queen kneeling by his side and holding the hand of him to whom she had been a source of consolation both in life and death. "Thus expired, in the seventy-third year of his age, in firm reliance on the merits of his Redeemer, King William IV.; a just and upright monarch, a forgiving enemy, a sincere friend, and an intelligent master."

He was succeeded by his niece, the Princess Alexandrina Victoria—only child of Edward, Duke of Kent, fourth son of George III.—our own beloved Queen, whose long and brilliant reign may be well described as the Reign of Progress.

SEAL OF WILLIAM IV., 1830–1837.

CHAPTER XVII.

THE REFORM BILL.

1832.

THE Reform Bill of 1832 has been described in the foregoing chapter as "the greatest organic change in the British Constitution that has taken place since the Revolution of 1688." It transferred the control of the government of the kingdom from the upper to the middle classes, and it paved the way to many other important political measures which have added to the well-being and prosperity of the entire people. It was not carried without a desperate struggle nor until after many years of agitation, and, in order to understand rightly the circumstances in which it became law, it is needful to go back to a somewhat remote period of our history.

GATTON HALL. *Frith, Photo.*

"The House of Commons, from the earliest records of its regular existence in the 23rd year of the reign of Edward I. consisted of seventy-four knights, or representatives of all the counties of England, except Chester, Durham and Monmouth, and of a varying number of deputies from the cities and boroughs." * It rarely happened that the counties failed to send representatives to Parliament, but through the negligence of the sheriffs, and sometimes at the request, or by the indifference, of the inhabitants, who were not willing to pay the expenses of their members, many towns ceased from time to time to be represented. It seems, however, that during the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries

* Hallam's History of England. Ch. XIII.

there was no town of importance that did not, at some time or other, send members to the House of Commons; and in addition to such towns the right of representation was often conferred upon insignificant places, frequently for reasons which had little or nothing to do with an honest desire that the inhabitants should have some share in the control of national affairs. One borough was enfranchised because the influence of the Crown was sufficient to secure the election of an obsequious nominee, another because a nobleman, or courtier, who owned the place, wished to possess influence in the House of Commons, and it thus happened that places almost uninhabited, like Gatton, and Old Sarum, returned members to Parliament for many centuries. In the reign of Henry VIII. the right of representation was given to Wales, the counties of Chester and Monmouth, to Berwick-on-Tweed, and, strangely enough, to Calais which then belonged to the English Crown. Edward VI. created fourteen boroughs, Mary added twenty-one,

OLD SARUM. *Frith, Photo.*

Elizabeth sixty, and James I. twenty-seven members to the House of Commons. In the reign of Charles II. the county and the city of Durham returned members for the first time and a charter was conferred upon Newark-on-Trent. This was the last extension of the rights of representation in England and Wales until the present century, and brought up the total number of members of the House of Commons to five hundred and thirteen. Forty-five members from Scotland were added by the Act of Union in 1707, and a hundred members from Ireland in 1801; from that year until 1885 the number of members of the House of Commons was six hundred and fifty-eight.

From what has been said of the circumstances in which the right of returning members had been conferred, it will be understood that the representative system was not symmetrical or satisfactory. The Long Parliament made an attempt to amend some of the anomalies of the system, and Oliver Cromwell caused members to be returned from important towns not previously represented. But at the Restoration of Charles II. matters resumed their old course and gradually went from bad to worse.

At the beginning of the century and until 1832, Yorkshire and Rutland were each represented by two members. Westminster and Liverpool had as many members as Gatton, which was a mansion and park, and Old Sarum, which was a mound. "The ten southern counties of England contained, in 1801, a population of about 2,900,000 souls and returned 237 members to Parliament. The 30 other counties contained a population of more than 8,350,000 souls and returned 252 members to Parliament. . . . Scotland contained a population of nearly 2,000,000 persons; Cornwall contained rather more than a quarter of a million of people. Yet Scotland returned only 45 members, while the county of Cornwall returned 44."* In 1793, the majority of the House of Commons was elected by less than 15,000 persons, and there were not 4,000 electors in all Scotland. Large and important towns such as Manchester, Birmingham, and Leeds, were unrepresented in Parliament.

There was little or no uniformity about the franchise in cities and boroughs, for, though generally far more restricted than after the Reform Bill became law, in some places it was exercised by potwallopers, or potwallers, or those who boiled their own pot, and this franchise practically included all male inhabitants above 21 who were not paupers. In other places the electors were those who paid 'scot and lot,' or all the rate-payers. In many cities and towns the freemen, who were also electors, were a numerous and it must be confessed, a very corrupt body. But against the places that enjoyed these democratic or liberal franchises must be set the greater number of towns and cities where the election was made by an unreformed municipal corporation, or by a very small proportion of the inhabitants.

And this was not all. The elections were not free, and the electors were without the protection of the ballot. Of the six hundred and fifty-eight members of the unreformed House of Commons, four hundred and twenty four were returned on the nomination or recommendation of patrons. Many boroughs in England and Wales, known as Treasury boroughs, were at the absolute disposal of the party in office. Thirty-five persons nominated all the Scotch members. The House of Commons was, and still is, accustomed to pass at the beginning of every session a solemnly-worded resolution against the interference of peers in Parliamentary elections. Such a resolution was a mockery, for one hundred and twenty-eight peers nominated two hundred and forty-five members. At the head of the list was Lord Lonsdale, who returned nine members, and was therefore known as "the premier's cat o' nine tails." The Duke of Newcastle, Lord Buckingham, Lord Mount Edgecumbe, and Lord Eliot returned six members each. The Duke of Marlborough and Lord Fitzwilliam five each. The Duke of Northumberland, the Duke of Bedford, the Duke of Rutland, Lord Ailesbury, and Lord Stafford four each.† This was the state of things in 1793, but in the course of the following years the number of seats in the hands of these peers altered, and was in some cases increased by purchase. In 1792 Lord Darlington nominated one member; in a few years he bought five seats and was created a Marquess. He voted for the Reform Bill, which disfranchised all his boroughs and was made a Duke, so that Greville said of him "he got his boroughs to be made a marquess; he got rid of them to be made a duke."‡

The influence of the peers was not restricted to cities and boroughs: they also controlled the elections in several counties. The election for Yorkshire had up till 1780 been usually made in Lord Rockingham's dining room. The Duke of Bedford's

* Walpole's History of England. Ch. II.

† Walpole's History Ch. II.

‡ Greville's Diary, II, 192.

influence was necessary to secure the suffrages of the county of Bedford. A contested county election was very rare. In 1831 there had been no contested election in Cheshire, Nottinghamshire, and Cardiganshire for a hundred years. It does not appear that the county of Denbigh had ever been contested.

A further hindrance to freedom of election was the bribery and corruption of the voters, which did not indeed cease to be a crying evil until long after the Reform Bill became law. At Liverpool, so Lord John Russell declared in 1831, men were openly

Copyright. *J. S. Crompton.*

PAYING FOR VOTES.

paid for their votes. The price of a vote varied in different towns. At Hull it was only two guineas, at Stafford seven pounds for a single vote and fourteen for a plumper, at Honiton as much as ten guineas. By withholding his vote until almost the end of the poll an elector in a close contest could often get more than the current price. In addition to the bribery of the electors there was often indiscriminate "treating." Riot and disorder were the usual accompaniments of an election, and the description in the Pickwick Papers of the election at Eatanswill is not an exaggerated picture, but a very accurate account of a contest.

The existence of many of these anomalies in our representative system had long been recognised by thoughtful observers. A motion intended to secure greater freedom of election had been discussed and rejected by the House of Commons in 1745, and one of the most vigorous opponents of the proposal was the elder Pitt. Five-and-twenty years later he had changed his opinion and denounced rotten boroughs in the House of Lords. His son, William Pitt the younger, advocated reform in and out of office, until, alarmed by the excesses of the French Revolutionary party, he abandoned all idea of amending the representation of the people, and strongly opposed all who supported his former views. So far as the House of Commons was concerned the cause of reform fell into the hands of Mr. (afterwards Earl) Grey, but so long as the alarm created by the French held possession of men's minds the advocates of reform were crying to the winds. When peace was re-established in 1815, a Tory Government was in power, and was little likely to propose to amend the representation of the people. No Ministry favourable to reform held office until Earl Grey became Prime Minister in November, 1830.

The Wellington Administration had been defeated on an unimportant question concerning the Civil List, and there was really no need that they should retire from office, but Mr. Brougham, who sat for the undivided county of York, had given notice in the House of Commons of his intention to bring in a bill for the reform of the representation, and, fearing a second defeat, the Duke decided to resign, and Earl Grey was entrusted with the formation of the new Government. He was no longer a young man, for forty-three years before he had been associated with Burke, Fox, and Sheridan in the impeachment of Warren Hastings, and was now more inclined to spend his days in the peaceful repose of Howick than to undertake the cares and anxieties of office. But *noblesse oblige*, and after some difficulties, especially with Brougham, who, however, became Lord Chancellor and was created Lord Brougham and Vaux ("Vaux et præterea nihil," his mother said) the Reform Administration was formed. The Cabinet was "perhaps the most aristocratic of the century. Only four of its members sat in the House of Commons; the first of these was the heir-apparent to an English earldom, the second was an Irish Peer, the third was a baronet of large property, and the fourth a Scotch landowner whose possessions qualified him for the peerage which he soon afterwards received."* In the course of a year or two Lord John Russell, brother of the Duke of Bedford, and Mr. Stanley, afterwards Earl Derby, were raised to Cabinet rank. It was not supposed that such a Cabinet would advocate democratic reform.

On taking office Lord Grey announced that the Administration was based on the policy of reforming Parliament, promoting economy, and preserving peace. This was in November, and the Reform Bill was not introduced until the 1st of the following March (1831). Meantime a Regency Bill, providing for the Government of the kingdom in the event of the death of William IV. before the Princess Victoria was of age, was carried through Parliament, the Civil List was settled upon a reduced scale, the Budget passed, and a committee of Ministers, consisting of Sir J. Graham, Lord Durham, Lord J. Russell, and Lord Duncannon, devoted many weeks to a careful consideration of the details of the proposed Reform Bill. Their recommendations were accepted by the Cabinet with the exception of the proposal that elections should be by ballot, to which Lord Grey strongly objected; and another proposal that the borough franchise should not extend below £20 householders, which the Cabinet considered did

* Walpole's History of England. Ch. XI. The four Cabinet Ministers were Lord Althorp, Lord Palmerston, Sir J. Graham, and Mr. C. Grant.

not go far enough and reduced to £10. Thus amended, the Bill was submitted to and approved by the King.

On the first of March, 1831, the Reform Bill was introduced into the House of Commons by Lord J. Russell, who held the office of Paymaster of the Forces, and had not yet attained Cabinet rank. But Lord J. Russell had for some years advocated Reform, and was a ready and effective speaker, which was more than could be said of Lord Althorp, the leader of the House of Commons. The House was crowded, and Lord John began his explanation of the Bill amid profound silence. After setting forth, at some length, the reasons which induced the Ministry to deal with Reform, he stated that it was proposed to disfranchise sixty-two boroughs with a smaller population than 2,000 each, and to deprive of one member forty-seven boroughs with populations varying between 2,000 and 4,000. Two members were to be taken from Weymouth, which at that time returned four, namely, two for Malcombe Regis, and two for the older town of Weymouth, and the total reduction thus effected would be one hundred and sixty-eight. The electors for the boroughs would in future be £10 householders, but residents who were freemen, burgage holders, pot wallopers, or possessed any other qualifications entitling them to vote, would not be removed from the list of electors, though all these classes would in the course of time die out.

LORD JOHN RUSSELL, 1844.

In the counties the franchise would be extended to £10 copy-holders, and to leaseholders for not less than twenty-one years, whose annual rent was at least £50. The forty-shilling freeholders would not be interfered with.

All the vacancies, which, as we have seen, amounted to one hundred and sixty-eight, would not be filled up, as the Ministry thought the House too large. Two members were to be given to each of seven towns then unrepresented,* and one member each to nineteen unrepresented towns. Four Metropolitan boroughs—Tower Hamlets, Holborn, Finsbury, and Lambeth—were to be created, and each was to return two members. In the Counties, Yorkshire was to return two members for each of the three Ridings, and two additional members were to be given to each of twenty-six

* The seven towns were Manchester, Birmingham, Leeds, Greenwich, Wolverhampton, Sheffield and Sunderland.

counties having more than 150,000 inhabitants. Five members were added for Scotland, three for Ireland, and one for Wales.

The Bill also contained provisions for the registration of electors, for limiting the poll to two days, for arranging boundaries, and for other subsidiary matters.

Lord John's speech was not an oration. It was delivered in a singularly quiet, business-like manner, but the plain unvarnished tale created enthusiasm among the Liberals, who had hardly dared to hope for so much, and alarmed the Tories, whose worst fears were more than realised.

The debate on the question, that leave be given to introduce the Bill, was continued until the 9th of March, when it was carried without a division. On the second night of the debate Mr. Macaulay, who had recently been brought into Parliament for Lord Lansdowne's borough of Calne, delivered the first of his speeches on Reform. He rose, a comparatively unknown young man, but when he sat down he had won a place in the first rank of Parliamentary orators. The Speaker told him he had never seen the House so excited. "Portions of the speech," said Sir Robert Peel, "were as beautiful as anything I have ever heard or read. It reminded me of old times." The names of Fox, Burke, and Canning were during the evening in everybody's mouth.*

In the few days that elapsed between the introduction of the Bill and the second reading, it became quite clear that the country was heartily with the Government and in favour of the Bill. The borough-mongers were, however, thoroughly alarmed, and made prodigious efforts to defeat the measure. Their attempt was almost successful, for after two nights' Debate, the second reading was carried by a majority of one, 302 having voted with the Government, and 301 against them. The result encouraged the Opposition, and, when on the 19th of April, it was proposed to go into Committee on the Bill, General Gascoyne carried a resolution by eight votes, that the number of representatives for England and Wales ought not to be diminished, and it was seen that there was no chance of carrying the Bill in the present Parliament.

The next morning the Cabinet decided to dissolve Parliament, and after hesitating for 24 hours the King gave his consent. Meantime the Opposition again defeated the Government in the House of Commons and it was thought well to dissolve at once. Every preparation was made, and at half past eleven on the morning of April 22nd, Lord Grey and Lord Brougham waited on the King to ask him to go that same afternoon to the House of Lords to declare the dissolution. According to one account of this memorable interview, the King charged the Ministers with treason for having ordered the Life Guards to attend His Majesty without his consent. "Yes, sire," said the Chancellor, "I know it; and nothing but the strongest conviction that your Majesty's crown and the interests of the nation are at stake could have induced me to take such a step or to tender the advice we are now giving."† This seems to have pacified the King, and he expressed himself ready to go, and to go at once. But here a further and somewhat ridiculous difficulty arose. Ministers might persuade the King, and call out the guards, but they could not hurry his groom, coachmen and horses. The officers of the Lord Chamberlain asserted it would be utterly impossible to get the state coach and horses ready for some hours. "Very well," said the King, "call a hackney coach." This had the effect of bringing the dilatory officials and servants to their senses, and in a very short time, the King was on his way to Westminster.

* Life and Letters of Lord Macaulay. Ch. IV.

† Molesworth's History of England, Ch. II. It is right to say that this is Lord Brougham's version of the story His accuracy has been questioned.

The fact of the impending dissolution had become known and very violent scenes were taking place in both Houses of Parliament. In the House of Lords Brougham was hooted, and Lord Londonderry shook his fist at the Duke of Richmond; in the House of Commons, even so staid a man as Sir Robert Peel seems to have forgotten himself and was pulled down by his coat tails when the House was summoned to go up to the Lords to hear the dissolution announced. In the King's presence good manners prevailed, and in a few minutes Parliament was prorogued, to be dissolved forthwith.

The people were delighted, for nobody, whether friendly to or opposed to Reform, doubted that the new House of Commons would contain a large majority of Reformers. London was illuminated, and such Tories as did not light up their windows had them smashed by the mob. Among the sufferers was the Duke of Wellington, and the iron

A REFORM DEMONSTRATION.

shutters which protect the windows of Apsley House are a standing memento of this time. The cry at the elections was "The Bill, the whole Bill, and nothing but the Bill!" and it was the cry of the victors. Many prominent Tories lost their seats, and in many instances the electors of the close boroughs were bold enough to reject the nominees of the borough owners. The Duke of Newcastle had, in 1829, asked, with reference to an election for Newark, "May I not do what I like with my own?" He now learnt with indignant surprise that the electors of Newark would no longer do his bidding, and their example was followed in other places. How the Whig borough owners were won over to support candidates pledged to vote for the disenfranchisement of towns they aspired to represent, will never probably be known. The arrangements with these Lords and gentlemen were entrusted to Mr. Ellice, commonly known as "Bear Ellice," the secretary to the Treasury. His negotiations were successful, but like a wise man, he carried the secret of them to his grave.

Parliament was opened by the King, who was enthusiastically cheered by the people, on June 21st, and three days later Lord J. Russell introduced the second Reform Bill, which did not materially differ from the first except that it was not proposed to reduce the number of members of the House of Commons below six hundred and fifty-eight. This rendered it possible to extend the number of members to be returned for populous constituencies. No division was taken on the introduction of the Bill; and the second reading was carried, after a three nights' debate, on the morning of July 8th by the very satisfactory majority of 136 as compared with a majority of one on the second reading of the first Bill.

The Opposition, seeing it was hopeless to inflict a direct defeat upon the Government in the House of Commons, resorted to every possible expedient to delay the progress of the Bill, and were successful to the extent of spending forty nights in discussing the details in Committee. The first night was wasted in raising frivolous questions, and the House did not adjourn until after seven in the morning, having sat for sixteen hours. When members broke up it was raining, and as Sir C. Wetherell, who had been prominent in obstruction, noticed the weather when he came out of the House, he said to a friend in a tone of vexation, "By G——, if I had known this, they should have had a few more divisions." A few days later, seven divisions, each occupying twenty minutes or half an hour, were taken on successive motions to adjourn, and the next night Sir Robert Peel moved an amendment only intended to make ungrammatical nonsense of a clause and so destroy its effect. To such depths of folly do men of honour descend under the influence of political excitement. One important and valuable amendment was carried against the Ministers by the Marquess of Chandos, by which the right of voting in counties was given to £50 occupiers, but with this exception no material alteration was made in the Bill which passed the House on September 21st.

Meantime the patience of the nation was being exhausted, and people were asking "What will the Lords do?" The debate on the second reading of the Bill was begun in the Upper House on October 3rd, and was one of the most memorable that ever took place. Lord Grey, who told the Peers he had never swerved from his early opinions on Reform, moved the second reading and wound up the discussion five days later. Lord Lyndhurst and Lord Brougham surpassed, it was thought, all their previous oratorical efforts. The latter ended his speech by kneeling down and imploring their lordships to pass the Bill. His friends hastened to raise him to his feet, and unkind Tory critics said their help was needed, and that the Chancellor was not so much overcome by emotion as by port wine. But the calm wisdom of Grey and the impassioned eloquence of Brougham were insufficient to persuade the Peers to pass the Reform Bill, and it was rejected on October 8th by a majority of forty-one. It is worth while to notice that a large majority of the older peerage supported the Bill, which was defeated by the combined forces of peers whose creation dated from the reign of George III. and of the bishops.

The news of the rejection of the Bill by the House of Lords spread like wildfire through London, and from London to the country. Many timid persons feared a revolution, but this was warded off by the prudence of the Ministry and the firmness of the House of Commons, which passed a resolution lamenting the fate of the Bill, and begging Ministers to persevere. Happily the nation was spared the horror, too often attendant upon political revolutions, but it did not escape serious disturbances at Derby, Nottingham, (where the mob burned the castle), in many other towns, and in London itself. The Duke of Cumberland, the king's brother, who had voted against the Reform

Bill, was dragged from his horse and rescued by the police, and Lord Londonderry was seriously mauled. At Bristol affairs took a more tragical turn; Sir C. Wetherell, who had been one of the most violent opponents of the Bill, was Recorder of the city, and went down at the end of October to hold the assizes. He was received by the Sheriff, and escorted by three hundred mounted gentlemen through streets filled with an angry multitude to the Guildhall. Two men were arrested, and this enraged the mob, who attacked and gutted the Mansion House, burnt down the Bishop's Palace, and set fire to many other buildings. The destruction of property was enormous, and the terrible scenes, then witnessed by a boy at school, at Clifton, were graphically described by him in a lecture delivered in Bristol twenty-seven years after. "One seemed to be looking at Dante's Inferno. . . . . I saw another and more awful sight. Along the north side of Queen Square lay a ghastly row, not of corpses, but of corpse fragments."*

A CONTESTED ELECTION.

A more peaceful, but more powerful agitation in favour of Reform was carried on by the Political Unions. At Birmingham 150,000 persons attended a public meeting which resolved that if the Reform Bill were not carried they would refuse to pay taxes, as Hampden had refused to pay ship money. In London a National Political Union was formed under the auspices of Sir F. Burdett. Some of the promoters of these meetings were not over-wise, and their turgid vapouring alarmed the more moderate supporters of Reform. The Ministers decided that in all the circumstances these Unions might do more harm than good, and suppressed them. They announced at the same time that Parliament, which had been prorogued shortly after the loss of the Reform Bill, would be at once summoned to reconsider the subject.

* Life of Charles Kingsley. Ch. II.

The third Reform Bill was brought into the House of Commons by Lord J. Russell on the 12th of December, 1831, and though framed on somewhat different lines from its predecessors, did not in effect materially differ from them. It was read a second time by a majority of two to one before Christmas, and finally passed the Commons on March 23rd, 1832. All eyes were again turned to the House of Lords, and everybody was again asking the question "What will the Lords do?" The Ministers had already discussed the question, and had endeavoured to approach the bishops, who usually voted with the party in power, and some of the more moderate Opposition Peers, who were known to be hesitating and were spoken of as the waverers. These negotiations, however, failed, and a small number of the Cabinet then reverted to an earlier suggestion, that the King should be asked to create a sufficient number of new peers to force the Bill through the House of Lords. But this plan was very unwelcome to Lord Grey, who at last accepted it, and with some difficulty obtained the King's consent to the creation of a limited number of new peers on the understanding that, as far as possible, the eldest sons of existing peers should be first called up. The waverers heard of this arrangement, and upon the understanding that it was not to be acted on, were able to assure Lord Grey that they would support the second reading of the Reform Bill in sufficient numbers to ensure a majority in the House of Lords.

They were as good as their word; the second reading was carried by a majority of nine, and Reformers were beginning to congratulate themselves on the safety of the Bill. Ministers knew better; the majority could not be depended upon, and the King was no longer a supporter of Reform. A few days proved that the fears of the Ministers were well grounded, for before the Lords went into committee a hostile motion postponing the disfranchising clauses was carried by a majority of thirty-five. Lord Grey thereupon asked the King to create new peers. A verse attributed to Macaulay ran:

"What though now opposed I be,
Twenty peers shall carry me,
If twenty won't, thirty will,
For I'm his Majesty's bouncing Bill."

But Ministers considered fifty new peers would be needed, and after some deliberation William IV. refused his authority to so large a creation. Thereupon the Ministry resigned, and the King, on the advice of Lord Lyndhurst invited the Duke of Wellington to form an Administration.

The Duke of Wellington was a brave man, but the task he had undertaken was beyond even his powers. He recognised now the urgent need of some measure of Reform, but could not persuade Peel or Goulburn to join him. While he was negotiating with his friends, the House of Commons passed a resolution of confidence in the Grey administration. The city of London and the town of Manchester sent up petitions to stop the supplies, and Lord Milton asked a tax collector to call again, as he might be obliged to refuse payment. A placard was widely posted, advising people to go for gold and stop the Duke, and the directors of the Bank of England were alarmed, for there was a serious run on many Savings Banks, and to some extent on the Bank itself. Many high-minded Tory gentlemen found it necessary to remonstrate with the Duke on his inconsistency, and, after a few anxious days, he was himself convinced of the utter impossibility of forming a Government, and resigned his commission into the King's hands.

Unpleasant as was the duty now imposed upon him, William IV. had no course open to him except to recall Lord Grey, and, after some further hesitation, to give him

written authority for the creation of a sufficient number of peers to carry the Reform Bill. But the King was still unwilling to make a large addition to the peerage, and without consulting his Ministers he directed his private secretary, Sir Herbert Taylor, to ask the leading Opposition peers to desist from further resistance to the Bill "so that it may pass without delay, and as nearly as possible in its present shape." It was unfortunate that this letter was not at once made known to Earl Grey, for there was another scene in the House of Lords, in which he, under great provocation, described Lord Kenyon's speech as "atrocious," and neither of these peers would have spoken as they did had they been aware of what the King had done. The King's letter was effectual; the Duke of Wellington, after explaining his share in the recent transactions, withdrew from attendance in the House, and his example was followed by the other leaders of the Opposition. The remnant was utterly disorganised, and, as further resistance was hopeless, the Bill passed quickly through Committee, and was read a third time on June 4th, 1832, by a majority of eighty-four, only twenty-two peers voting against it. A few amendments of little importance, introduced in the Lords, were accepted by the Commons, and on June 7th, the Royal Assent was given by Commission. The third Reform Bill had become part of the law of the land!

LORD BROUGHAM,
afterwards Lord Chancellor.

CHAPTER XVIII.

LITERATURE.

1801–1837.

IF at the very beginning of the nineteenth century an impartial critic had sat down to review contemporary English literature, and to compare it with the literature of the past, he might not unjustly have concluded that for two or three centuries there had not been so barren a time. Of the recent poets, whose names are still remembered, Burns had died in 1796 and Cowper in 1800. The great historians of the eighteenth century, Hume, Robertson, and Gibbon had all passed away; Adam Smith, whose "Wealth of Nations" was destined to produce such fruitful results in the sphere of political economy, died in 1790, and though Jeremy Bentham was living, men had, as yet, paid little heed to his writings. No novelist had taken the place once occupied by Richardson, Fielding, Smollett, Sterne, and, somewhat later, by Miss Burney; Sheridan had produced his best plays long before the present century began, and Oliver Goldsmith had been lying for nearly thirty years beneath the shadow of the Temple Church.

But if our critic, judging only from what he saw, had despaired of the future of English literature, he would have been utterly at fault. Wordsworth had begun to write, and three boys then at school, Byron, Shelley and Keats, were in the course of a few years to establish a position in the very front rank of English poetry. Wordsworth's first volume was published in 1793, but was little known. In 1798 his "Lyrical Ballads," which contained some contributions from Coleridge, appeared, evoking much ridicule and some appreciation. He had already formed a theory of the object of poetry and poetic diction totally at variance with received methods. "The principal object in these poems was to choose incidents and situations from common life, and to relate and describe them throughout, as far as was possible, in a selection of language really used by men, and, at the same time, to throw over them a certain colouring of imagination." *

To these principles Wordsworth adhered with characteristic obstinacy. Pushed to extremes they led to the production of such lines as,

"Is it a party in a parlour,"

and

"All silent, and all damned,"

to be found in one stanza of the original version of Peter Bell, but removed from later editions in deference to the remonstrances—not of hostile critics, whose strictures Wordsworth never noticed—but of friends by whose judgment he was sometimes guided. Byron hit Wordsworth's weak point, describing him as one

"Who, both by precept and example, shows
That prose is verse, and verse is merely prose,
Convincing all, by demonstration plain
Poetic souls delight in prose inane."†

*Preface to second edition of "Lyrical Ballads." †"English Bards and Scotch Reviewers."

None of these things moved Wordsworth, who pursued the even tenour of his way, producing his best work in the early years of the century, but continuing to write almost to the end of his honoured life. He survived until 1850, having long before established his position as one of the first of English poets.

Byron, the second of the four poets named, and the second also in order of birth, was, in every way, a contrast to his great contemporary. His earliest poems, "Hours of Idleness," were sharply criticised in the Edinburgh Review, and provoked "English Bards and Scotch Reviewers"—a brilliant literary satire, especially when it is remembered that the author was only just of age. Soon after its appearance Byron went abroad, and on his return published the first two Cantos of "Childe Harold," and woke one morning to find himself famous. Within a little more than five weeks, seven editions of

DOVE COTTAGE, GRASMERE. *Photo-Chrom. Co.*

The residence of Wordsworth, 1799–1808; subsequently occupied by De Quincey.

the poem were published, an altogether unprecedented literary success. It was followed by the "Giaour," the "Corsair" (said to have been written in ten days, fourteen thousand copies of which were sold in one day), "Lara," and other poems. In 1815 Byron married Miss Milbanke, an heiress, and their daughter Ada was born in the same year. A month later, Lady Byron left her husband for ever. The cause of their separation remains a mystery, and we need not accept the scandalous rumour unhappily revived by an American authoress about twenty-five years ago. There were faults on both sides, but chiefly on his, and Lord and Lady Byron were utterly unsuited to one another. Soon after the separation he left England, led an irregular life in Switzerland and Italy, wrote the third and fourth Cantos of "Childe Harold;" a series of dramas ("Manfred,"

"Cain," "Faliero," and others), and "Don Juan," and died at Missolonghi in Greece—where as we have seen he had gone to assist the Greeks in their struggle for liberty—in January, 1824. His body was brought to England, and an effort was made to bury it in Poets' Corner, at Westminster Abbey, but the Dean and Chapter withheld their consent, and he lies at Hucknall Torkard in Nottinghamshire, near Newstead Abbey, the old home of his family. "His lot was cast in a time of a great literary revolution."* For a time his popularity was unbounded. Young men wore Byron collars, and practised before a glass to catch the curl of his lip and the scorn of his brow. All this is a thing of the past, but much of his poetry will probably keep his name alive to generations yet unborn.

Percy Bysshe Shelley was, like Byron, the descendant of an ancient family and was educated at a public school and a university. While still at Eton he wrote and published a romantic but crude story, "Zastrozzi," and while at Oxford printed a

NEWSTEAD ABBEY—WEST FRONT.

pamphlet on "The Necessity of Atheism" for which he was expelled. Two years later "Queen Mab" was privately printed, its author judging that the political and anti-religious theories he put forth in the poem were a little too pronounced for general circulation. "Its chief idea was the new one that had come into literature—the idea of the future perfections of mankind in a future golden age. The whole heart of Shelley was absorbed in this conception, in its faith, and in the hopes it stirred."†

"Queen Mab" was followed by "Alastor," "The Revolt of Islam," "Prometheus Unbound," "The Cenci" and other works. Meantime the poet was living a most irregular life, and had been declared by Lord Chancellor Eldon, unfit, on account of his opinions, to bring up his own children, though he was allowed to nominate guardians subject to the approval of the Court of Chancery. Such a judgment would hardly be possible in the present day, and Shelley felt it bitterly. At the age of thirty, he was mysteriously drowned near Leghorn in Italy, and his body was burnt in the presence of

* Macaulay. "Moore's Life of Byron." † Stopford Brooke—"English Literature."

Byron, Leigh Hunt and Edward Trelawney, the ashes being subsequently interred in the Protestant Cemetery at Rome. His lyrical poems show him at his best and have never been surpassed by any English writer.

John Keats was a Londoner, and while at school at Enfield, made the acquaintance of Charles Cowden Clarke, who directed his attention to literature, and encouraged him to read much and widely. He was apprenticed to a surgeon, but soon deserted medicine for poetry. He made many friends—Haydon, Hazlitt, and Leigh Hunt, among them, and at a later period of his brief life, Coleridge, Wordsworth, and Charles Lamb. Compared with the three poets already named Keats wrote little. His "Sonnets" and "Endymion" are his best work, but, in the opinion of those most competent to judge, he would have attained the highest fame had life been continued to him. He, too, was buried at Rome, whither he had gone in search of health.

SHELLEY'S ELOPEMENT WITH HARRIET WESTBROOK.

These four contemporary poets are among the brightest stars of the literary firmament, but others, and some scarcely less brilliant, must be named. Crabbe, a Suffolk clergyman, chose his subjects from common life, but described them in the poetic diction of a former time, and had little imaginative power. Walter Scott's fame rests chiefly on his novels, but the "Lay of the Last Minstrel," "Marmion," and the "Lady of the Lake" have never lost their hold on the reading public, and if Scotsmen can prevent it, never will. Thomas Moore's "Irish Melodies" are still remembered and read with pleasure, but "Lalla Rookh," for which Longmans paid him 3,000 guineas, is little suited to the taste of the present day, though it was a marvellous success when it first appeared. An early copy was brought down to the house of a Nonconformist minister in a London suburb, where, as it happened, several other ministers were staying. After supper the owner of the book began to read it aloud, and so entranced were the assembled divines, that they sat up nearly all night, reading

by turns until the story was finished. The next day was Sunday, and several of them had preaching engagements. "Lalla Rookh" was quoted in more than one pulpit on that day.

Robert Southey, poet laureate 1813-43, who, with his brother-in-law, Samuel Taylor Coleridge, and William Wordsworth, have been somewhat absurdly called the Lake poets, began life as a Radical and ended it as an old-fashioned Conservative. At one time he was a popular poet, and

"Southey's epics crammed the creaking shelves,"

but most of his fifty works, contained in over a hundred volumes, are forgotten. His industry was prodigious, and he was an upright, thrifty man, in the latter respect a contrast to his unthrifty brother-in-law, Coleridge. It has already been stated that

READING LALLA ROOKH.

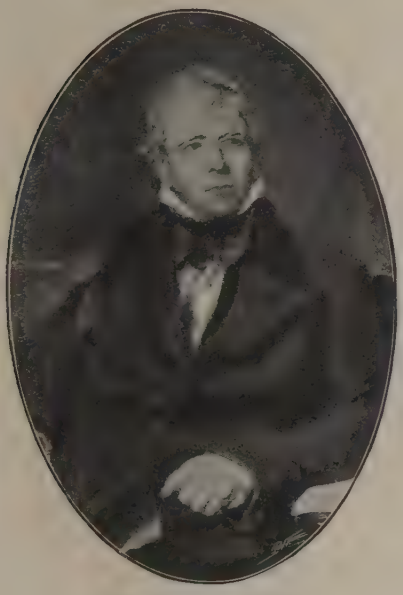
Coleridge contributed to the "Lyrical Ballads," and he afterwards published separate volumes of verse. He is, however, better known and remembered as a critic and philosopher. No English writer has contributed so much to the better understanding of Shakespeare, few have proved themselves more subtle defenders of Christianity, and Coleridge may be regarded as one of the founders of the modern Broad Church party, and one of the fore-runners of the Oxford Movement of 1832 and the following years. He profoundly affected the thinkers of his own day and of succeeding years, and has been one of the most potent influences of the century.

Two other poets must be mentioned. Samuel Rogers, who as a youth had gone to call on Dr. Johnson, but was too timid to knock at the door, had, as early as 1781, written in the "Gentleman's Magazine," and in 1792 published the "Pleasures of Memory,"

which in 1816 reached a nineteenth edition. In 1803 he withdrew from the bank in which he had been a partner, and set up a bachelor's establishment, a miniature palace of art, in St. James's Place, where for fifty years he gave his famous breakfasts.

Felicia Hemans' complete works fill seven volumes, but she is chiefly remembered by such lyrics as "The Better Land" and "The Graves of a Household," which are to be found in many collections of poetry.

Our list of poets ends with the name of a lady, and at the beginning of our remarks on the novelists of the early part of the century, we will put the names of three famous women; Maria Edgeworth, an Irishwoman, Jane Austen, an Englishwoman, and Susan Ferrier, a Scotchwoman. Miss Edgeworth was the daughter of a somewhat remarkable Irishman, who married four times and had children by each of his wives. This, indeed, is not his chief claim to distinction, but his literary efforts belong to the eighteenth century, and have been eclipsed by the more famous works of his daughter. "Castle Rackrent" was published in 1801, and was followed by other novels descriptive of Irish life. Their success induced Walter Scott to do for his own country what Maria Edgeworth had done for Ireland. Jane Austen was the daughter of a Hampshire clergyman, and her novels,—which seem to be more popular at the end of the century than when they first appeared,—were written in quiet country houses, generally in a drawing room while her friends were chatting and working. They are exquisite miniatures, which have never been equalled by any woman writer, and it may well be doubted whether a masculine pen could have produced them. Susan Ferrier's title to fame rests upon three novels, and it was unfortunate for her that they were written at a time when Walter Scott was at the height of his popularity.



SIR WALTER SCOTT.

No notice of the literature of the early part of this century could be complete without a reference to Scott's novels. They are in everybody's hands, and fresh editions are still called for. The first of the long series, "Waverley," was published anonymously in 1814. It took the reading public by storm, and everybody asked "who was the author"? For some years Scott denied that the novels were his, but it was impossible to conceal the truth. "Waverley" was followed by other brilliant successes, and Scott continued to write almost to the end of his life in 1832. His later works cannot be compared with the earlier novels. He wrote them under the pressure of money difficulties, brought upon him by his connection with the Ballantynes, the Edinburgh printers. The story of his gallant struggle to pay his debts has been told at great length in his "Life" by his son-in-law, Lockhart, and a pitiful story it is. His house at Abbotsford contains many relics of the Wizard of the North, and is one of the sights of the Border. But Scott's best and most enduring monument is in the hearts of his readers, and the great-grandchildren of those who welcomed his novels as they appeared are as keenly interested in the fortunes of his heroes and heroines as their ancestors were eighty years ago.

The earlier volumes of Mitford's "History of Greece" were published in the closing years of the last century, but the work was not completed until 1810. The author spared no pains to make his history accurate and full, but unfortunately he had imbibed from the excesses of the French Revolution such a horror of democracy that he was quite unfitted to do justice to the democratic states of Ancient Greece, and he has been superseded by the histories of Bishop Thirlwall and of George Grote; the first, a calmly written, judicious account of one of the most important epochs of the human race, and the second, a sympathetic, if somewhat laborious, view of the subject from a democratic standpoint. Sharon Turner's "History of the Anglo-Saxons," and "History of England," were, in their day, valuable works, but modern researches, and a more intelligent method of historical study, have rendered them obsolete. Henry Hallam has deservedly been more fortunate than Mitford or Turner. Born in 1777, he devoted himself to classical and historical studies, and did not publish his first important work until he had attained his fortieth year, when his "View of Europe in the Middle Ages" placed him in the first rank of contemporary historians. His "Constitutional History of England" appeared ten years later, and is still a leading authority on the subject. Hallam is far too impartial to be a popular writer. "His work is eminently judicial. Its whole spirit is that of the Bench, not that of the Bar. He sums up with a calm, steady impartiality, turning neither to the right nor to the left, glossing over nothing, exaggerating nothing, while the advocates on both sides are biting their lips to hear their conflicting mis-statements and sophisms exposed." *

Hallam's last important work, "The Literature of Europe in the XVth, XVIth, and XVIIth Centuries," appeared at the close of the period under consideration. His name is for ever linked with Tennyson's, inasmuch as his son, Arthur Henry, who died at Vienna, in 1834, is the subject of "In Memoriam."

Dr. Lingard's History of England to 1688, in eight volumes, which ran into six editions in the course of twenty-five years, is entitled to be considered a literary success, and is of permanent value as a work of great research. Written in a candid spirit, but from a Roman Catholic standpoint, it never had a chance of becoming popular, but has probably tended to clear the minds of honestly disposed readers of some unworthy prejudicies against the Church of Rome. The first work of Sir James Mackintosh was written in vindication of the French Revolution in reply to Burke's "Reflections," but the author lived to modify his opinions. He wrote a short, but excellent survey of English History for Lardner's Cyclopædia, and left at his death a fragment of a "History of the Revolution of 1688." Henry Hart Milman's chief historical works appeared at a later period than we are now dealing with, but his "History of the Jews" was published in 1829, and, with an essay of Dr. Pusey's published almost simultaneously, marks the first inroad of German Theology into England. Pusey afterwards modified his views, which, it should be stated, were never very far advanced, and became one of the justly honoured leaders of the Oxford Movement, but Milman held steadily to his opinions—quite unshaken by the hubbub his book had excited, and died, at a venerable age, Dean of St. Paul's. His earlier works had been chiefly poems and his "Belvidere Apollo," which won the Newdigate in 1812, is still esteemed (perhaps no great commendation) the best of the Oxford Prize Poems. Milman was also the author of several dramas which were at one time often seen on the stage.

Isaac Disraeli, whose books are now almost forgotten, was, in his day, a useful and popular writer. His "Curiosities of Literature," the fruit of much though not always

*Macaulay's Essays—"Hallam's Constitutional History."

accurate research, will repay examination, and have proved a useful mine of information to succeeding writers. His "Calamities of Authors," and "Quarrels of Authors," were produced at a time when writers, an irritable race, quarrelled as they do sometimes at the end of this century of enlightenment. But in earlier days their quarrels led to more serious results than an action for libel, or a reference to the Committee of a club. Moore and Francis Jeffrey, when about to fight a duel at Chalk Farm in 1806, were stopped by constables, who examined the pistols intended to be used, and found them to contain nothing but powder; but a few years later the Editor of the London Magazine was killed in a duel provoked by a literary quarrel. Isaac Disraeli's "Calamities" and "Quarrels of Authors" were not altogether ill-timed publications.

COLERIDGE AND LAMB.

Malthus's famous "Essay on Population" had been published in 1798, but it excited a controversy which lasted many years and perhaps cannot even now be pronounced totally extinct. He also wrote two other valuable works on subjects connected with political economy. Malthus was a country clergyman; his contemporary in the study of these questions, David Ricardo, was a member of the Stock Exchange, whose theories of Rent and Wages stirred up as much strife among politico-economists as Malthus's theory of population excited in a wider circle. It would be impossible, however, in these pages to deal with the important questions they raised.

Of other writers during this period—and their name is legion—mention must be made of Hazlitt, Leigh Hunt, and Charles Lamb. Hazlitt's critical powers were unequalled, and he dealt justly with his contemporaries as well as with the writers of bye-gone days. Hunt started the "Examiner" newspaper in 1808, but his extreme views got him into trouble, and in 1813 he was fined £500 and sent to prison for two years because he had described the Prince Regent as "a corpulent Adonis of fifty." Personal journalism was not unknown eighty or ninety years ago, and has in these days become a marked feature of some newspapers though it is not now attended by such perils as befell Hunt, who lived long enough to be caricatured by the genius of Charles Dickens.

Everybody knows the story of the life of Charles Lamb, whose "Essays of Elia" will long continue to delight their readers. Lamb was every inch a Cockney and loved the streets, courts, and alleys of London as no other writer has done. Few men have had more famous friends; Coleridge was his schoolfellow and their friendship was lifelong. It was into Lamb's ear that Coleridge poured many of his monologues—conversation it could not be called—and on one occasion it is said, Coleridge, walking with Lamb, seized a button of his coat, and began his wonderful talk. But Lamb had another engagement, and finding his friend was totally absorbed in his subject, cut off the button and went his way. Returning in an hour or two he found Coleridge still holding the button, and still talking, apparently quite unaware that he had been alone during Lamb's absence!

To gain some notion of the material progress of Literature during the century a profitable comparison might be made between the "Times" newspaper of 1801, a journal of four small pages, and a copy of the same paper contained in sixteen, or even twenty large pages in 1900; or between the first "London Directory" of 1799, which would easily go into a man's pocket, and the Directory for the present year, which very few would like to carry a hundred yards. The present century has witnessed a marvellous development in newspapers and magazines, but while several newspapers, both in London and the country, date from the last century, probably not more than one magazine can claim to be a centenarian. The "Edinburgh Review" began its brilliant and successful career in 1802, and the Editor of the first number has told the story of its origin. He held a curacy on Salisbury Plain, and the squire of the parish, an ancestor of Sir M. Hicks Beach, asked him to go with his son to the university of Weimar. But war broke out, and they put into Edinburgh where, meeting Jeffrey and Brougham, the curate, who was none other than Sydney Smith, proposed that he and his friends should set up a Review, and suggested as a motto half a line of Virgil—

Tenui Musam meditamur avena,

which he translated "We cultivate Literature on a little oatmeal." This, however, was rejected as too near the truth, but the firm of Constable was induced to take up the project, and the first number of the "Edinburgh Review" appeared in October, 1802. The Review very speedily established its position as the leading critical journal, and strenuously advocated many reforms obnoxious to the prevalent Toryism in Church and State. The editorship was soon transferred to Jeffrey, and in his hands the Review attained a circulation of thirteen thousand—a large number considering the price was six shillings. To counteract the influence of the "Edinburgh Review," which in politics always supported the Whigs, John Murray suggested the publication of a Tory Review; the first number of which appeared as the "Quarterly Review" in February, 1809, under the editorship of William Gifford, a scholar, whose sarcastic pen made him at once feared and hated. Scott, Southey, and Croker, were among the earlier contributors, and though Scott and Southey had reason to complain of the bitter and unfair criticisms of their works, which had appeared in the "Edinburgh," they did not succeed in imparting a suaver tone to the rival review. It was said, though happily without truth, that Keats was killed by an article in the "Quarterly," and the beginning of Jeffrey's review of Wordsworth's "Excursion" in the "Edinburgh"—"This will never do,"—only shows that able critics do not possess the infallibility they too often assume.

These two reviews still flourish; the publication of the older journal was long ago transferred to London, but the "Quarterly" is still issued from its only home in Albemarle Street. Another magazine, "Blackwood," which derived its origin from the

"Edinburgh Magazine," began its career in 1817, and keeps a foremost place among the monthlies that now swarm from the press.

In the period with which we are dealing, few literary efforts were made to meet the needs of the masses, as distinguished from the classes, perhaps for the sufficient reason that the masses were too poor to buy books, and too ignorant to appreciate them.

"MRS. SHERWOOD'S 'FAIRCHILD FAMILY' WAS TO BE FOUND IN EVERY WELL-REGULATED NURSERY."

Cobbett's "Weekly Register" begun in 1802, became two years later an uncompromising champion of Radicalism, and, as Cobbett wrote in a terse, vigorous style, in which, indeed, he has never been surpassed, he exerted a powerful influence over his readers. At times he was coarse and inconsistent, he hated London, which he invariably described as "The Wen," and regarded great cities as blots on civilisation. His

"Advice to Young Men," is an excellent book, and his "Rural Rides" may still be read with interest.

For the religious and moral improvement of the people, great, if sometimes misjudged efforts, were made by the Religious Tract Society. The works they published with this aim can hardly be classified as literature, and in the present day no sensible district visitor would venture to circulate them. But even books intended for the edification of educated people and their children were of the most dreary character. Mrs. Sherwood's "Fairchild Family," which, fifty years ago, was to be found in every well regulated nursery is a type of this class. It contains three long descriptions of three funerals with much moralising upon each, and an account of a visit to a gibbet, undertaken with the object of impressing upon the little Fairchilds the awful consequences of children's squabbles. One of these children having taken a little jam was forthwith stricken with scarlet fever; the not very serious self-satisfaction of another is punished by a fall into a tub of pigswash. The children of this generation may be thankful indeed that the books written for them are of a more natural and more wholesome character, and if out of curiosity they light upon the pages of the "Fairchild Family," they may hope that the little Fairchilds, when they grew up, were less priggish than their parents.

In 1832 the Society for the Diffusion of Useful Knowledge made a serious attempt to reach people of small means by bringing out the "Penny Magazine," which for some years attained a weekly circulation of two hundred thousand copies As we turn over its pages, we may be tempted to smile at the rudely executed woodcuts, and the didactic tone of the printed matter, but the "Penny Magazine" was the harbinger of a brighter and better day of popular literature

WILLIAM COBBETT.

CHAPTER XIX.

PROGRESS OF CHRISTIAN MISSIONS.

1801-1850.

IT is too late in the day to ask the question, "Has missionary work been a success or a failure?" The answer is to be found in idols overthrown, women elevated, intestine wars ceasing, marriage ties honoured, infanticide stopped, nations thrown open to peaceful commerce, and happiness increased throughout the world And it is too late in the day to sneer at missionary work, seeing that it has been advocated by our noblest statesmen and rulers, by our great travellers and explorers, by a whole army of literary men, by all bodies of Christians of every church and sect, while for many years past the subscriptions for carrying on the work has been over two millions sterling per annum, subscribed in this country alone.

HANS EGEDE IN GREENLAND.

One or two of our great missionary societies were established about the close of the seventeenth century, but it was not until after the great Evangelical Movement, to which we have referred in a previous chapter, that these and similar societies undertook the gigantic task of "going into all the world to preach the Gospel to every creature." Honour to whom honour is due. We must not forget that in earlier ages Xavier, Loyola, and other leaders of the Roman Catholic Faith, heroically undertook great missionary crusades in Japan, the far East, and elsewhere, although they left few successors imbued with the same spirit. Nor must we forget that the labours of individuals preceded the

labours of organised societies. It is to the Moravians that the revival of Christian heroism in this wide field of action is due; theirs was the first church to hold the proud distinction that it was the duty of the whole body, and of every individual member, to do his proportionate share at home and abroad in evangelising the heathen.

From 1457, sixty years before the Reformation, the Unitas Fratrum, or Church of the United Brethren, was in existence, but it remained little known until Count Zinzendorf founded a small settlement in Saxony and named it Herrnhut, "the Watch of the Lord," where he gathered around him a number of zealous and earnest men, who made missionary labour among the heathen the distinctive work of their church and the chief object of their lives. In all the history of missions there is nothing more beautiful, or of more thrilling interest, than the labours of the "ignorant and unlearned men," who,

GREENLAND MISSIONARIES.

without scrip or purse, and dependent upon their own labours for their maintenance, started, without excitement or applause, on hazardous and difficult journeys to carry the Gospel into the most inclement regions and the most unpromising spheres. Some went to the West Indies, where they worked as slaves on the plantations, in order that they might influence the slaves. Others, like Hans Egede and the family of the Stach's, penetrated into Greenland, Labrador, and elsewhere, putting the modern expeditions of Arctic travellers into the shade. George Schmidt, friendless and alone, landed at Cape Town, and with his life in his hand, sought to civilise the Hottentots by teaching them agriculture, while, at the same time, he told them of the Christian religion; others founded settlements among the Red Indians, and some devoted themselves to the awful

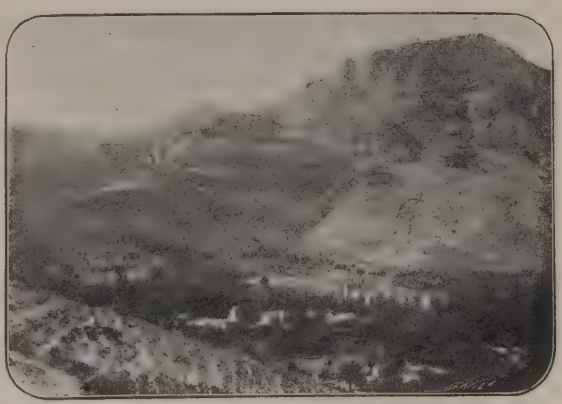
task of ministering to the lepers of South Africa, while others sacrificed their lives in the wilds of Tartary, Tibet, and Mongolia.

Of all romantic tales of daring adventures, of marvellous escapes, of unwavering pluck and perseverance, of curious geographical and ethnological facts, and of self-denial, self-sacrifice, and martyrdom, we know nothing within the whole range of literature to compare with the history of the Brethren, as told by Krantz, Latrobe, and other members of the Brotherhood. They were first in the field in South Africa, first to penetrate into Chinese Tibet; they worked valiantly amongst the Red Indians; they were pioneers in Persia; and they went forth on these hazardous expeditions from their little Meeting House in Fetter Lane, or from their home at Herrnhut, bearing with them only the prayers and good wishes of their comrades, and, making their way to the nearest port, worked their passage out as common seamen, and landed, amidst poverty and insult, in lands where their tongue (in most instances) was unknown, and their mission was not understood.

ESKIMO HUT, LABRADOR.

When the nineteenth century opened there were only ten missionary societies in existence throughout Christendom, and of these only two had entered the mission field with any degree of vigour, namely, the United Brethren, or Moravians, and the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel.

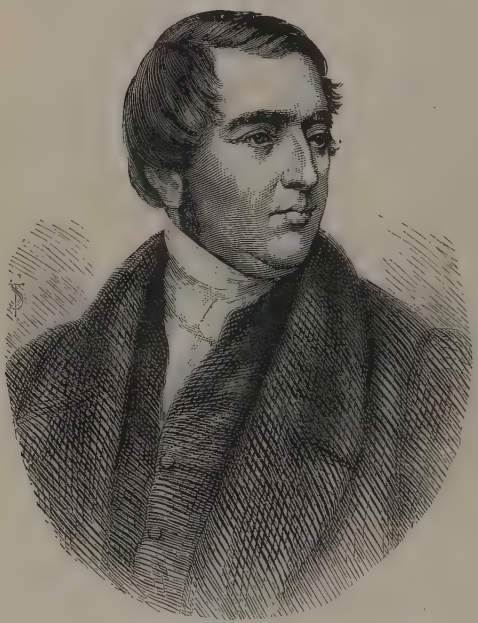
In 1800 the only missions of the Protestant Church east of the Cape were in India;—the Baptist Mission, protected under the Danish Settlement of Serampore, and the Mission in Tanjore in Southern India. Dr. Claudius Buchanan, a protégé of Henry Thornton, of the "Clapham Sect," was the only chaplain of the East India Company who had ever dared to advocate missionary enterprise in India. Hindostan was closed by the East India Company against any missionaries of the Christian Church. China and Japan were sealed against the Gospel; Africa had



GENADENDAL.
Oldest Mission Station in S. Africa.

only a few missionaries at the Cape, and the whole land was groaning under horrible slavery. No sound of the Gospel had been heard, no effort of civilisation undertaken, in New Zealand, Australia, or many of the isles of the Southern Seas. Except in India, the only occupants of the mission field in that year were the self-denying Moravians, and the Danish missionaries, who, amid the snow and ice of Greenland, were gathering round them little groups of Eskimo to learn the A.B.C. of Christian knowledge.

We shall not discuss the difficult question as to the possibility of uncivilised persons being able to receive the complex truths of Christianity, even though presented in their own tongue, by foreign lips. Matthew Arnold says: "There is an immortal strength in the stories of great actions," and the stirring story of the Gospel, being the greatest of all actions, may, taking a low ground, have been the power that riveted the attention of Hottentot and Hindu, Eskimo and Polynesian. Nor shall we argue the very debatable position whether the teaching of Christianity should precede or follow the teaching of civilisation. John Williams, the great Polynesian missionary, combined both methods. He would teach the natives to burn lime, to build ships, to make a pair of bellows, while at the same time he was teaching them the elementary truths of religion, believing that by that means he could develope and purify gifts which lay buried, and aspirations which slumbered in the rudest natures. A similar course was pursued long afterwards by the martyr Bishop, Patteson, who set before himself the task of converting savages into civilised men, and, at the same time, heathens into Christians. His opinion was that an ideal missionary "ought to be a carpenter, a mason, something of a butcher, a good deal of a cook, and, in addition, farmer, gardener, tailor, physician, surgeon, and nurse, as well as teacher, preacher, and pastor."



JOHN WILLIAMS.

In the early part of the century, when important legislation was taking place with regard to our Colonial Empire generally, the Government gave considerable attention to the religious interests of the millions upon millions of British subjects scattered throughout our dependencies. In India, the East India Company, as we have said, objected to any efforts being made to promote the spiritual welfare of the Hindus, and when Claudius Buchanan, who was Vice-Provost and Classical Professor of the College at Fort William (an institution which had been founded by the Marquis of Wellesley, when Governor-General) made his long and laborious missionary tour, he gave great offence to the Company and others, who like them opposed Christian missions. The opposition took this form:—that "Hindus did not need conversion; that their religion was good enough and needed little improvement. Moreover, that faith must be kept with the Mohammedans, who could not endure to have the claims of their prophet called into question." Indian merchants connected with the Company were up in arms, and when

Buchanan drew up a paper relating to his tour, the Company forbade its publication in the Government "Gazette," and the continued existence of the College was threatened. Besides the opposition in India, there was great difficulty in England in finding clergymen disposed to undertake foreign missions, and properly qualified for the due discharge of their duties. So early as 1801, two agents of the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel went on a visit to the churches at Trichinopoly, Tanjore, and elsewhere, planted by the venerable Schwartz, a German who spent forty-eight years in Southern India and died in 1798.

In 1813, at the commencement of the great debates on the renewal of the East India Charter, news reached England of the death of Henry Martyn, on whose life and labour for the welfare of the East, great hopes were entertained. Since 1805 he had been one of the chaplains of the old East India Company, and had done much work in the erection of schools for the education of native youths, and in preaching on the lawn

HENRY MARTYN AT CAWNPORE.

before his house at Cawnpore, to congregations of natives numbering as many as eight hundred at a time. He knew the Hindustani language well, translated the greater part of the Prayer Book into it, and also made a translation of the New Testament into the Hindustani, Arabic, and Persian languages. He left India to assume the Persian dress and adopt the Persian manners, and live in Shiraz, the city of Persian literature. But his health gave way and he died on his way home in October, 1812, in the thirty-second year of his age.

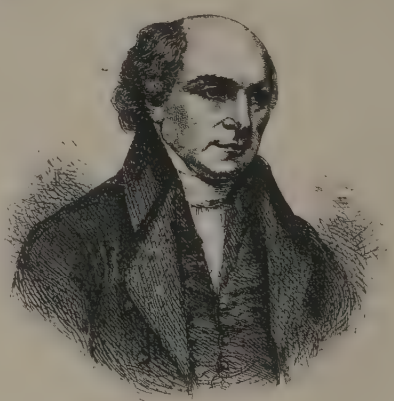
In 1814, Dr. T. F. Middleton, the first of the East Indian bishops, founded his college at Calcutta. This was an important advance towards the dissemination of the Gospel in India. His diocese comprised all the British territories in the East Indies, to which Ceylon was added by Letters Patent in 1817. In 1823 a wider extension followed, reaching "to the utmost limits of the Company's charter," and in 1824, New South

Wales and its dependencies were included within this enormous See. Dr. Middleton was succeeded in 1823 by Bishop Reginald Heber. On his arrival he opened the college which his predecessor had founded, and in the following year ordained Christian David, a pupil of Schwartz, and the first native of India admitted into Holy Orders of the Church of England. In Benares, the head-quarters of Siva-worship, he found a church ready for consecration, and fourteen converts waiting to be confirmed. At Cawnpore, he visited many of Henry Martyn's converts, and from place to place he gathered together those who were seeking a higher knowledge and a purer life, never resting while so much urgent work was to be done. One day, after preaching in Trichinopoly, he visited the bath, a separate building near the house, with stone steps descending into the water. A servant waited outside whilst he bathed, and becoming alarmed at the length of time that elapsed, he looked in and saw the lifeless body of the bishop, lying in the water. So perished the author of "From Greenland's icy mountains," in the forty-fourth year of his age. His dying wishes for the neglected native Christians of India were not unheeded.

BISHOP HEBER.

He was succeeded by the well-known Incumbent of St. John's Chapel, Bedford Row, Daniel Wilson, who for six and twenty years was the guiding spirit in the Church of England missionary work in India.

In all the history of missions in India there is one name which shines out pre-eminently; it is that of William Carey, the Cobbler of Pauler's Pury, eleven miles from Northampton. He was by no means skilful with the bristle and the awl, and it is said that he could never make two shoes which were a pair. Although desperately poor—sometimes glad of a job as a scarecrow in the fields—he had within him a consuming ambition to become a preacher, and in course of time became the pastor of a little chapel in Moulton, ekeing out his living by keeping a school and working at his trade. As a teacher he was strong on geography, and it is said that one day passing the countries of the world under review, he pointed to the map and said, "These are pagans, and these are pagans, and these are pagans!" and then, overwhelmed with the thought, he wept aloud. When a meeting of ministers was held some time afterwards at Northampton, he proposed as a subject for discussion, "The duty of Christians to attempt the spread of the Gospel among the heathen nations." Here he was snubbed by the president, who, springing to his feet when the subject was announced, cried, "Young man, sit down. When God pleases to convert the heathen, He will do it, without your aid or mine!" Soon after this, Carey preached



CAREY

at Nottingham and the burden of his discourse was "(1) Expect great things from God; (2) Attempt great things for God." At the close of the meeting, the sum of £13 2s. 6d. was subscribed and the now famous Baptist Missionary Society was formed. Carey was to be their first missionary, and he accepted the position with a fervour of enthusiasm. His first work after reaching India was to form a class of pupils for the study of Sanskrit, Persian, and Bengali. Five years afterwards he had a translation of the New Testament in Bengali ready for the press. A little later we find him on the staff of Oriental professors at the Fort William College, a position which he maintained with growing honour and usefulness for twenty years.

As the territories of the East India Company were closed against missionaries, Carey withdrew to Serampore, held at that time by the Danes, whose views were more enlightened, and there he established himself, being afterwards joined by Marshman and Ward. Within twenty years, he and his companions had translated the Scriptures into twenty-one Indian languages. Nor did he confine himself to the Bible. His Sanskrit grammar was of the greatest possible use, not only at the time, but to those who followed him. Lord Wellesley bore testimony to the importance of that language when he pronounced it "the source and root of the principal vernacular dialects throughout India." One of Carey's great efforts was to obtain the abolition of Suttee—the self-immolation of women upon the burning pyres that were consuming the bodies of their deceased husbands. Unhappily the English in India regarded that horrible rite either with indifference, or with admiring interest, "as a picturesque and romantic custom of the mild Hindoo." Having himself witnessed the awful rite, Carey called upon the Government to prohibit Suttee as a crime, and by sending agents from village to village, he obtained evidence that within thirty miles of Calcutta, more than three hundred widows had been burnt alive within a period of six months. Then he set the Pundits at the College to work on the Shastras, and these learned men reported that Suttee was nowhere enjoined as a duty, but simply encouraged as a virtuous sacrifice. All this information was laid before the Government, but nearly a quarter of a century passed before direct action was taken, and during that period, at least seventy thousand more victims perished in the flames. When, however, Lord William Bentinck went to Calcutta as Governor-General, Suttee was doomed, and before the end of 1829, a law was passed, making it illegal, and rendering those who attempted to take part in it, punishable in the Criminal Courts.

The Government sent to Dr. Carey a copy of the Act in English for translation into Bengali, in order that it might be published in both languages on the same day, and as it reached him on a Sunday morning, he worked through the Sabbath hours, "never more truly kept holy," until the translation was completed. Hindus and Europeans denounced the measure, and petitioned Government for its repeal as a "violation of England's compact with India that there should be no interference with Hindu rites and customs." Happily the appeal was in vain.

Carey died in 1834, the hours of his last illness being cheered by frequent visits from Bishop Wilson of Calcutta, and the Governor-General, Lord William Bentinck.

Two noble men stand out conspicuously among the heroes of missionary work in India; Dr. Alexander Duff and Dr. John Wilson.

When Dr. Chalmers was arousing in sleepy St. Andrews a spiritual fervour, Alexander Duff, one of the most promising students, was chosen by the Church of Scotland to be its missionary in India. He was welcomed by Lord William Bentinck, and almost immediately commenced an inspection of all the mission stations and schools in the district, finishing his tour with a visit to Carey at Serampore. There he came

upon "what seemed to be a little yellow old man in a white jacket, who tottered up to the visitor, of whom he had already often heard, and, with out-stretched hands, solemnly blessed him." Duff had determined that his life work should be to give young India, and especially its Brahminical element, an English education, saturated with the Bible—a determination which Carey heartily approved.

Dr. Duff inaugurated a new era in missionary work; he would not bind himself to any conditions as to the method in which he should meet the natives, or what form his instruction to them should take, still less would he allow himself to be a slave of chaplains or of kirk-sessions; he was no cut-and-dried missionary, but a man with a burning enthusiasm, who could not be shackled with hard and fast rules. His first effort was to open a school, where the attendance of young men soon rose to three hundred, and, in a short time, the school became one of the most famous institutions of Calcutta. Europeans, who were present at the first annual examination, were amazed at the results which had been obtained. While attending to secular knowledge, a spirit of inquiry was aroused in his Bible teaching, and Duff delivered public lectures on the Christian Evidences. Year by year the work grew, till the Institution became a flourishing College with an average attendance of eight hundred.

On visiting England after five years of ceaseless labour, his public speeches attracted great attention, and large sums of money were placed at his disposal for carrying on his work. On his return to India, he, and his co-workers, founded the Calcutta Free Church Institution, and succeeded in establishing branch schools in rural districts. One of his great helpers in this was Sir James Outram; Duff required six thousand rupees, and was at his wit's end to know where to get them, when "the Bayard of India" wrote to ask whether six thousand rupees—a part of £3,000 he had received as his share of prize money on the capture of Scinde—would be of any special use to him on the banks of the Ganges. This balance of "blood money," as Outram called it, and of which he would not touch a farthing, was gladly accepted by Duff, and the Bansheria school came into existence.

Duff made a survey of all the chief Indian mission fields, inspiring the workers with new ideals; he edited the "Calcutta Review;" he gave his services to the Medical College Hospital at Calcutta for the poor of all creeds and races, and he laid the foundation of a system of education, which should ultimately embrace throughout India "all the branches ordinarily taught in the higher schools and colleges of Christian Europe, but in inseparable combination with the Christian faith and its doctrines, precepts, and evidences, with a view to the practical regulation of life and conduct."

Dr. Duff laboured on, every day teaching in his college, every night superintending classes, and pouring out to more advanced thinkers the wealth of his well-stored mind; while every Sunday he lectured on subjects which placed Hinduism and Mohammedanism in contrast with Christianity. When he died, in 1878, Mr. Gladstone said "he not only stood in the first rank for intelligence, energy, devotion, and advancement in the inward and spiritual life, but he likewise so intensely laboured in the cause, that he shortened a career which Providence would, in all likelihood, have committed to him, and he is reaping his reward in the world beyond the grave at an earlier date than those whose earthly career is lengthened into old age. He was one of the noble army of the confessors of Christ."

Little had been done for Western India till 1829, when John Wilson went there straight from Edinburgh University, and took up his abode in Bombay. By giving nine hours a day to Marathi, Wilson was able in six months to preach in that tongue, and, soon

after, became fluent in Gujarathi, Hindustani, and Persian. In company with the Rev. C. R. Farrar—the father of the well-known Dean of Canterbury—he made extensive tours in Western India, and, at a place near Nasik, assisted in establishing a school for liberated Africans. From this school Dr. Livingstone selected the "boys" who were his faithful companions till his death. Dr. Wilson's methods were different from any that had hitherto been adopted. He held conferences with the natives, preached in the public streets, and sought to communicate Western truth in Oriental dress, and in such form that learned and ignorant might alike be benefited. We have no space to tell of the Magazine which he published—the oldest Christian periodical in India—of the great scholastic organisation he founded, of his scholarly writings, especially his great work "The Parsi Religion," or of the mighty influence he wielded as Vice-Chancellor of the University of Bombay.

MORRISON.

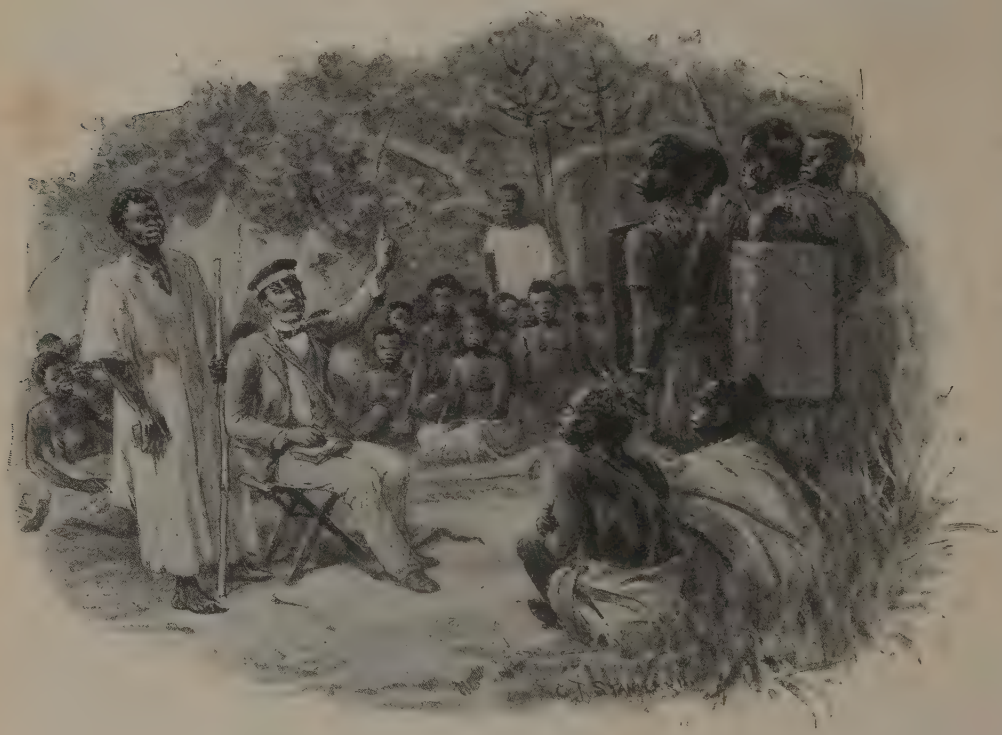
The first Protestant missionary to China was Dr. Morrison, of the London Missionary Society. He landed in Macao in 1807, his great object being to secure a translation of the Scriptures into the most difficult of all languages—the Chinese. His enterprise was regarded as "absurdity in hysterics, preposterousness run mad, illusion dancing in the wildest frenzy, the unsubstantial dream and vision of a dreamer who dreams that he has been dreaming." Undaunted by derision he persevered. On his arrival in the country he adopted the dress and manners of the natives for his own protection; he wore his pigtail, allowed his nails to grow, and ate with chop-sticks. It was an offence against the laws for any native to teach the Chinese language to Europeans, and the difficulties Morrison had to encounter were overwhelming, but he overcame them; and when it is remembered that the Chinese have no alphabet, that every written character is a word, that thousands of different characters are in common use, and that in a dictionary which he compiled there are upwards of forty thousand characters, some idea of his gigantic task may be gained. His grammar, lexicon, and translation of the Scriptures laid the foundation for future missionary operations amongst a population of four hundred millions of souls. It was many years before the conquests of Britain obtained admission for, and protection to, missionaries, but when, in a metaphorical sense, a breach was

Stereo. Co.

DAVID LIVINGSTONE.

made in the great wall, they found provided for their immediate use, a dictionary of the language and a translation of the Bible.

Time would fail to tell of John Williams and his missionary ship in the South Seas; of Moffat, Livingstone, Bishop Gray, and many others in South Africa; of Ellis in Madagascar; of Marsden among the Maories in New Zealand; of Cargill and Calvert in Fiji; of Knibb in Jamaica; of Judson in Burmah; and a host of other brave and noble men who hazarded their lives and made sacrifices of home, comfort, and ease, to carry the blessings of Christianity and civilisation to the dark places of the earth. In nothing is the true progress of the century more fully exemplified than in the story of its Christian missions.



LIVINGSTONE IN AFRICA.

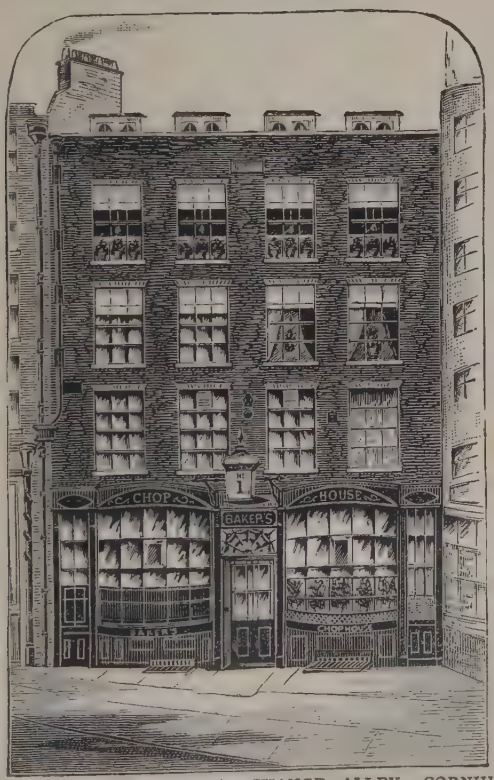
Until a century ago the white man had brought no blessing to the dark nations of the globe. During three hundred years he had appeared as the despoiler, the enslaver, the exterminator of the weaker peoples of the earth. With one or two exceptions—bright episodes of which our American friends may well be proud standing out against that dark background—the missionaries came as representatives of a race which had been the great wrong-doers to the poorer and weaker peoples of the world. In South America the ancient civilisation had been trodden out beneath the hoofs of the Spanish horse. In Africa, Christian men had organised an enormous traffic in human flesh. In Southern India, the Portuguese had sacked cities and devastated kingdoms. Throughout the whole tropical oceans of Asia, the best of our European nations appeared as unscrupulous traders; the worst of them were simply pirates and buccaneers. In India, destined to be the chief field of missionary labour, the power had passed to

the English without the responsibility which would have led them to use that power aright. During a whole generation, the natives of India had been accustomed to regard us as a people whose arms it was impossible to resist, and to whose mercies it was in vain to appeal.*

ELLIS.

When the century opened, Christian Governments withstood missions, and were intolerant of their influence; now, they are welcomed and applauded. Then, the press ridiculed them; now, its tone is completely altered; then, there was not one *properly* organised missionary society to the heathen; now, there are over a hundred and fifty separate organisations with a fund of two and a half millions per annum. Then, individuals, uneducated, but full of splendid energy and courage, were the principal missionaries; now, there is a noble missionary army, over seven thousand strong, and of native workers thirty-five thousand, of whom three thousand are ordained ministers. Then, the teaching of missionaries left the great cults of the Heathen, Mohammedan, and Jewish world, practically untouched; now, the highest learning of the best schools in every department of knowledge is taught fearlessly.

* From a speech by Sir William Hunter, Chairman of the Centenary Conferences of the Protestant Missions of the World, 1888.



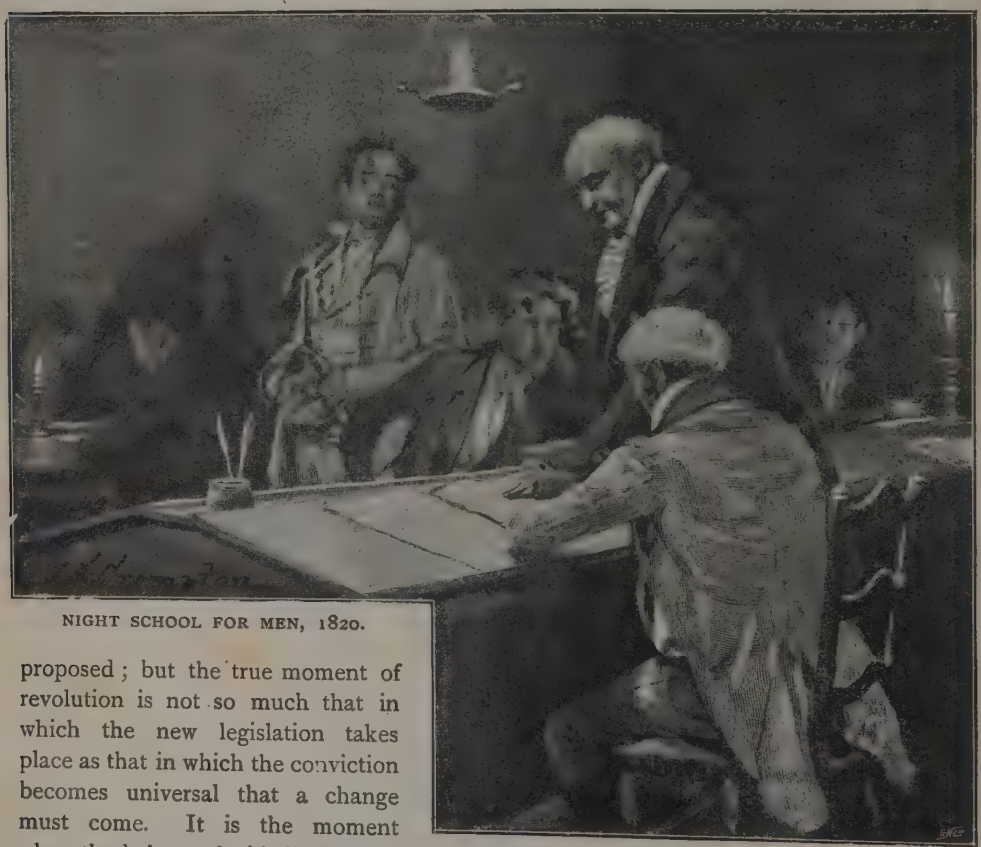
BAKER'S COFFEE HOUSE, CHANGE ALLEY, CORNHILL,
Where the London Missionary Society was founded.

CHAPTER XX.

A GENERAL SURVEY.

1820-1837.

PROFESSOR SEELEY once wrote :—"If I were required to say at what exact date the age of English history, in which we are now living, began, I should be disposed to mention the year 1829. Certainly about that time began an order of things which seems not yet to have closed . . . There was far more noise and clamour in 1831, and it was in 1831 that the great constitutional change was proposed; but the true moment of revolution is not so much that in which the new legislation takes place as that in which the conviction becomes universal that a change must come. It is the moment when the balance decidedly inclines to the side of innovation, when simultaneous despair seizes upon the defenders of the existing regime; when they begin to resist rather for honour than for victory; when they plainly recognise their inferiority; when they begin to accustom their thoughts to a new condition of things, and to prepare for the inevitable change . . .



NIGHT SCHOOL FOR MEN, 1820.

Copyright. *J. S. Cromptom.*

"The change which passed over the country raised public opinion from insignificance to actual omnipotence. In the interval between 1770 and 1829, the public opinion of the country gained *organisation.* Public opinion is not merely the sum of the opinions of the individuals composing the public. The individuals must be brought into relation with each other, and be formed into some sort of organic whole before anything worthy to be called a public opinion can spring up among them . . . It is by discussion and communication that men arrive at a common understanding. But supposing such a common understanding created, it could not become a commanding force in politics except in certain conditions. It would require some means of obtaining a constant supply of information upon public affairs, and secondly, some means of making its conclusions known. Public opinion is organised when it has three things—sources of information, means of discussion, organs of expression . . All these three conditions of power public opinion in the eighteenth century may be said practically to have wanted—though it did not want any of them absolutely. It acquired them in the period between 1770 and 1829 through the extension of the newspaper system, through the rise of the practice of association and public meeting for political purposes, and through the extension of the old practice of petitioning. That period may be called the period of the organisation of public opinion . . . The newspaper supplies to public opinion all the three requisites at once, though in very unequal degrees. It furnishes the people with the means of discussion. Controversies are carried on in it; facts are marshalled on one side and the other; eloquence is displayed in the examination and application of the facts. Every paper by itself is equivalent to a parliament; all the newspapers of a country taken together, constitute a parliament which, for the mere purpose of discussion, is far more efficient than any Parliament that ever sat at Westminster."*

The revolution in the political world, to which Professor Seeley particularly refers, was in no degree greater than the revolution in the social life of the country at the same period. It was, as we have said, a time of great upheaval and transition, of the beginning of innumerable movements that were to culminate in the great successes of the century, a period when every kind of question was pressing to the front in every department of life and thought. Public opinion was beginning to express itself on social questions in a manner it had never done before; the eyes of men were being enlightened to see evils lying unredressed, abuses prevalent, the condition of the poor disregarded, anomalies needlessly in existence, the relations of capital and labour awaiting adjustment, and inconsistent laws encumbering the statute books. With the spread of knowledge came the consciousness of how little people really knew of the actual state of existing things, and this evoked a spirit of inquiry. Investigation was made into such common-place subjects as the sanitary condition of the homes of the poor, of water supply and drainage, of the value of ventilation and fresh air, of the need of infirmaries and hospital accommodation, of proper inspection of "charities," of lunatic asylums, and of workhouses. And in proportion as the spirit of inquiry and the craving for information grew among the leaders of men, there sprang up a desire to give suitable education to every child in the land, so that the former ignorance of the masses might be swept away, and the new generation be made capable of understanding the Age of Progress into which it had been born.

We do not propose in this chapter to attempt an enumeration of *all* the new movements originated at this time—the task would be impossible in the space at our disposal—but merely to glance at some of them, and to call attention to a few events, enterprises,

* "The English Revolution of the Nineteenth Century" by Professor Seeley, Macmillan's Magazine, Vol. xxii. pp. 241-352.

discoveries, and explorations, which shall indicate the new spirit and mark the progressive march of the years from the death of George III. to the accession of Queen Victoria

The tastes of the people were improving, and with the freedom of the newspaper press, and the spread of general literature, there came a desire for many elegancies and refinements hitherto disregarded. One of the most valuable institutions in this country is, without doubt, the British Museum, and the additions made to it from time to time indicate the various stages in the literary and artistic tastes of different generations It was founded in 1750 by the purchase of the library and collection of Sir Hans Sloane. and Montagu House, which was bought for the purpose, was large enough to hold all its treasures for many years. In 1801, George III. presented a collection of Egyptian antiquities, and in 1805 and 1806. the purchase of the Townley and Elgin marbles respectively, made it necessary to build a new wing. The Museum continued to increase, and when, in 1823, George IV. presented his father's library of sixty-five thousand

THE BRITISH MUSEUM. *Photochrom Co*

volumes, to be placed under the care of the Trustees of the British Museum, old Montagu House was found to be quite inadequate for its purpose, and the present building, designed by Sir Robert Smirke, and completed in 1827 by his younger brother, Sidney Smirke, was erected on its site In making the present of his father's library, the King said, "It was for the purpose of advancing the literature of his country, while he paid a just tribute to the memory of a parent whose life was adorned with every public and private virtue."

The present magnificent reading room was not constructed until 1855-57, but it became a "felt want" from the time when George IV. made his valuable presentation to the Musuem. The great "reading age" was then only in its infancy

The period of which we write was remarkable for the multitude of its inventions and discoveries. The career of one man may be taken as a sample of others.

Among those who came to England on the outbreak of the great French Revolution in 1789 was Marc Isambard Brunel, whose son, Isambard Kingdom Brunel, became the

engineer of the Great Western and other railways, the designer of the Great Eastern steamship, the architect of many important public works, and the patentee of some striking inventions. Of his patents the first was for a duplicate writer and drawing machine. The next, for twisting cotton thread and forming it into balls, and the next, and most famous, was the invention of block machinery. In the rigging of ships a vast number of blocks were used for the purpose of raising and lowering the masts, sails, and yards. In the Royal Navy alone, a ship of 74 guns required to be provided with no fewer than 1,400 blocks of various sizes.

Brunel offered his invention to the Admiralty, and in 1801 the subject was referred for inquiry to the Inspector-General of naval works, who reported favourably upon the scheme. A large building was erected at Portsmouth, and in 1808 the manufacture of

Copyright. BRUNEL AT CHATHAM

blocks by the new process began A satisfactory result was soon obtained. It was found that by the new machinery ten men could perform the work which before had required one hundred and ten men to execute, and that it could furnish in the year at least one hundred and sixty thousand blocks of various kinds and sizes worth £54,000.

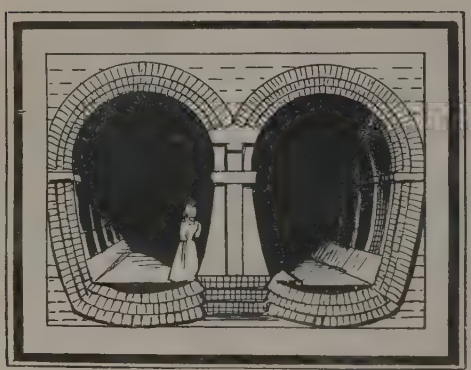
Brunel's next invention was the manufacture of shoes by machinery, by means of which the upper leathers were to be fastened to the soles by metallic pins or nails This was followed by the erection in 1808 of the Battersea Saw Mills, but as Brunel was not a competent man of business, neither of these enterprises proved a financial success

Invention seemed to be the normal state of his mind, and it took in such different subjects as stocking-knitting machines and steam engines, metallic paper, stereotype

printing and the treadmill! His greatest scheme, and the one by which he will probably be best remembered, was the excavation and construction of a tunnel under the Thames at Rotherhithe

The idea of a tunnel under the Thames had been brought forward so early as 1802 by Trevethick, the inventor of the locomotive and high pressure steam-engine, who formed a company to carry out his design. The opinion of the company, after expending much money in experiments, was, "that an underground tunnel which would be useful to the public and beneficial to the adventurers, was impracticable."

In 1816, the question was again revived, and Brunel, while thinking over the matter, chanced to see a piece of old timber lying in the dock-yard at Chatham, which had been honey-combed by the great destroyer of submerged timber, the *Teredo-Navilis*. He found the head of this little insect was armed with a pair of strong shelley valves and that with its proboscis fixed to the wood, and acting as a centre-bit, the shell working like an auger, it was enabled to bore its way through the wood. This tiny sea worm gave Brunel his first idea of the true method of excavating his tunnel. In 1824 a Company was formed, with a capital of £200,000, and an Act was obtained to commence operations, in 1825.



HOW THE THAMES TUNNEL WAS MADE.

No 1 shows construction No. 2 shows Iron Shields with a workman in each compartment.

In the early days of engineering experience, tunnels seemed far more formidable undertakings than bridges. Men could face what they saw, and undertake what they could calculate; but it was another thing to burrow into the bowels of the earth, to encounter rocks or quicksands, or, it might be, springs and moving clays, and all this in darkness and in ignorance of what might come next The interest and excitement, the incredulity and ridicule which Brindley had to encounter in 1766 when he proposed to cut the Harecastle Tunnel in Staffordshire, were intensified a hundredfold when the wild notion was discussed of carrying a road-way under the Thames. Nevertheless, the work proceeded, and was brought to a completion and opened to the public on the 25th of March, 1843.

An incident, one out of many, in connection with the second flooding of the tunnel is told by Mr. Beamish, the biographer of Sir Marc Isambard Brunel.*

"On the morning of Saturday, the 12th of January, I came on duty at six o'clock, but was detained aboveground in writing out orders for the men who had been most

*Memoirs of Sir Marc Isambard Brunel, Civil Engineer, Vice President of the Royal Society, etc., etc., by Richard Beamish, F.R.S., London, 1862.

exposed to wet, to allow them to receive warm beer, with a little gin mixed, as had become the usual practice. I had scarcely completed the last order, when a strange, confused sound of voices seemed to issue from the shaft, and immediately the watchman rushed in, exclaiming "The water is in—the Tunnel is full!" My head felt as though it would burst—I rushed to the workmen's staircase; it was blocked by the men; with a crowbar I knocked in the side-door of the visitors' staircase; but I had not taken many steps down when I received Isambard Brunel in my arms. The great wave of water had thrown him to the surface, and he was providentially preserved from the fate which had already overwhelmed his companions. "Ball! Ball! Collins! Collins!" were the only words he could for some time utter; but the well-known voices answered not—they were for ever silent.

"In the earnest desire to make progress, some of the precautions which experience had shown to be so important were unfortunately omitted; and Isambard Brunel, calculating upon the tried skill, courage, and physical power of some of the men coming on in the morning shift (particularly Ball and Collins), ventured, at high water, or while the tide was still rising, to open the ground at No. 1 Shaft.

"According to his own account, given to me that day, upon the removal of the side-shoring the ground began to swell, and in a few moments a column of solid ground, about eight or ten inches in diameter, forced itself in. This was immediately followed by the overwhelming torrent. Collins was forced out of the box, and all the unflinching efforts of Ball to timber the back proved unavailing. So rapid was the influx of water, that had the three not quitted the stage immediately they must have been swept off. A rush of air suddenly extinguished the gas-lights, and they were left to struggle in utter darkness. Scarcely had they proceeded twenty feet from the stage than they were thrown down by the timber now in violent agitation, for already had the water nearly reached as high as Isambard's waist. With great difficulty he extracted his right leg from something heavy which had fallen upon it, and made his way into the east arch. There he paused for a moment to call for Ball and Collins, but receiving no answer, and the water continuing to rise, he was compelled to consult his own safety by flight. Arrived at the shaft, he found the workmen's staircase, which opened into the east arch, crowded. The morning shift had not all gone down; the night shift had not all come up; added to which, those who had succeeded in placing themselves out of danger, forgetful of their less fortunate companions, stopped and blocked up the passage. Unable to make his way into the west arch and to the visitors' staircase, which was quite clear, owing to the rapidity with which the water rose, Isambard Brunel had no alternative but to abandon himself to the tremendous wave, which, in a few seconds, bore him on its seething and angry surface to the top of the shaft. With such force, indeed, did the water rise, that it jumped over the curb at the workmen's entrance. Three men, who, finding the staircase choked, endeavoured to ascend a long ladder which lay against the shaft, were swept under the arch by the recoil of the wave. The ladder and the lower flight of the staircase were broken to pieces. We had then to mourn the loss of Ball, Collins, Long, G. Evans, J. Cook, and Seaton. . . . Isambard Brunel was found to have received internal injury as well as severe abrasion in the knee-joint, and was confined to his bed for months."

As the readers of Dr. Smiles' "Lives of the Engineers" will remember, the close of the first quarter of the Nineteenth Century was remarkable for its great engineering works. In June 1825, the first stone of the New London Bridge was laid by the Lord

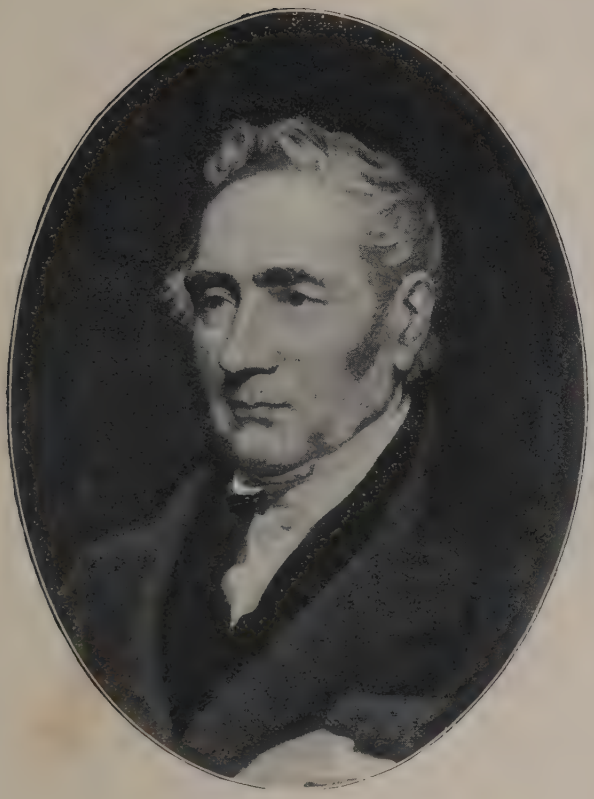
Mayor in the presence of the Duke of York and Mr. John Rennie, its eminent architect. The work was carried on under the superintendence of his sons, Sir John and George Rennie, and was completed and opened to the public in 1831. The total outlay, including the cost of the approaches, was about two millions sterling. It may interest some of the hundred thousand foot passengers who cross the Bridge every day to know that the lamp-posts were cast out of the metal of French cannon captured in the Peninsular War.

Nothing marks the progress of engineering science more conspicuously than Telford's great structure, the bridge over the Menai Straits, one of the boldest, as well as one of the most graceful, works of modern engineering skill. This suspension bridge—the space between the points of suspension being 580 feet—was opened on the 30th of January, 1827, for the convenience of communication between Great Britain and

MENAI BRIDGE.
From the Anglesea side.

Ireland, and was regarded at the time as among the most surprising efforts of art in Europe.

Notwithstanding the fact that the year 1826 was *the* panic year, when every commercial house was shaken, the trade of the country, thanks to the commercial reforms of Mr. Huskisson, was gradually improving. One of the signs of increasing prosperity was the demand for new docks, and in 1828 St. Katharine's Docks were opened with great pomp, the engineer being the celebrated Telford, and the architect, Hardwick. The docks cover an area of twenty-four acres, on which twelve hundred and fifty houses, with eleven thousand three hundred inhabitants, previously stood. One of the public buildings that had to be removed was St. Katharine's Hospital; a new one was built on the east side of Regent's Park, and is at the present time the Central House for Nurses for the Poor, maintained by the Jubilee gift of the women of England to Queen Victoria.



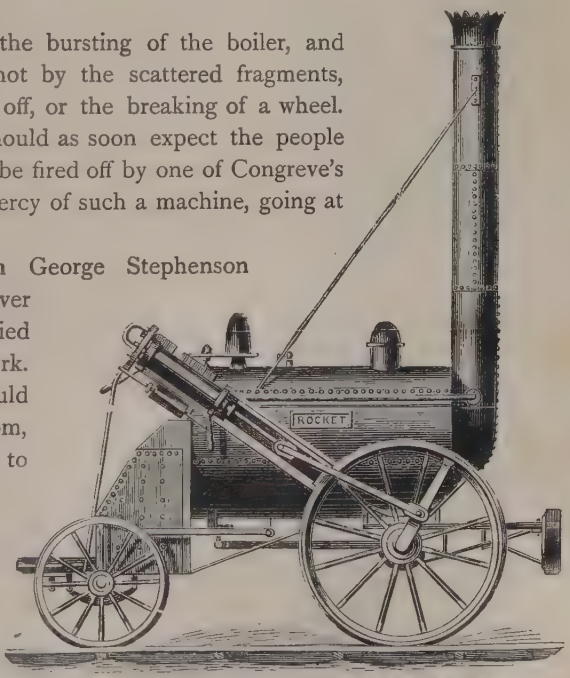
GEORGE STEPHENSON.

The great event of this period, before which all others fall into insignificance, was the opening of the Liverpool and Manchester Railway in 1830.

When Stephenson, in 1825, proposed to run a train from Woolwich to London at the rate of eighteen miles an hour, the "Quarterly Review" wrote :—

"The gross exaggeration of the powers of the locomotive steam-engine, or to speak more plainly, the steam-carriage, may delude for a time, but certainly must end in the mortification of those concerned. It is certainly some consolation to those who are to be whirled at the rate of eighteen or twenty miles by means of the high pressure engine, to be told that they are in no danger of being sea-sick while they are on shore ; that they are not to be scalded to death, or drowned by the bursting of the boiler, and that they need not mind being shot by the scattered fragments, or dashed in pieces by the flying off, or the breaking of a wheel. But with all these assurances, we should as soon expect the people of Woolwich to suffer themselves to be fired off by one of Congreve's rockets as trust themselves to the mercy of such a machine, going at such a rate."

In the same manner, when George Stephenson proposed to carry his railway over Chat Moss, eminent engineers denied the possibility of achieving the work. One of them said that no vehicle could stand on the Moss short of the bottom, that the whole must be scooped out to the depth of thirty feet, and an equivalent of hard earth filled in, and that even if a railway could be formed on the Moss it would cost £200,000. Stephenson's only answer to all this was to *do* the work. He



THE ROCKET.

LIVERPOOL AND MANCHESTER RAILWAY—FIRST CLASS, 1830.

threw down thousands of cubic yards of solid earth, which gradually sank and solidified, over the twelve square miles of moss; hurdles and brushwood were laid upon the surface, and on this the wooden sleepers were laid. The railway was a success and the work at Chat Moss cost only £30,000.

Without doubt the invention of the steam-engine is the greatest mechanical triumph which man has yet achieved. The use of horse power, or of wind or water, was merely catching a portion of those forces which were already in motion on the face of the earth, and putting them into harness in order to extract as much work out of them as their inconstant nature would admit of; but the steam-engine owes its power to forces which were absolutely dormant till called into action by processes in its own interior, and which can be stopped or regulated at the will of those who have charge of it. It is susceptible of application to thousands of different purposes, and its multiplication and improvement is, perhaps, the most extraordinary fact in the industrial history of the world. It has been well said of the locomotive, rushing past at a speed of sixty miles an hour, consuming coals with reckless wastefulness, and casting its vital heat and life's blood to the four winds at each beat of its valves;—"Nothing that man has done comes so near to the creation of an animal as this—even the most unimaginative can hardly help drawing comparisons between the steam-horse and his quadrupedal competitor. There is, indeed, more in the comparison than appears at first; especially when we see the monster fed with great spoonfuls of cooked black vegetable food, from which it evolves its vital heat in its capacious lungs, which, after circulating through its tubular veins, is launched into the air with the waste products of combustion." *

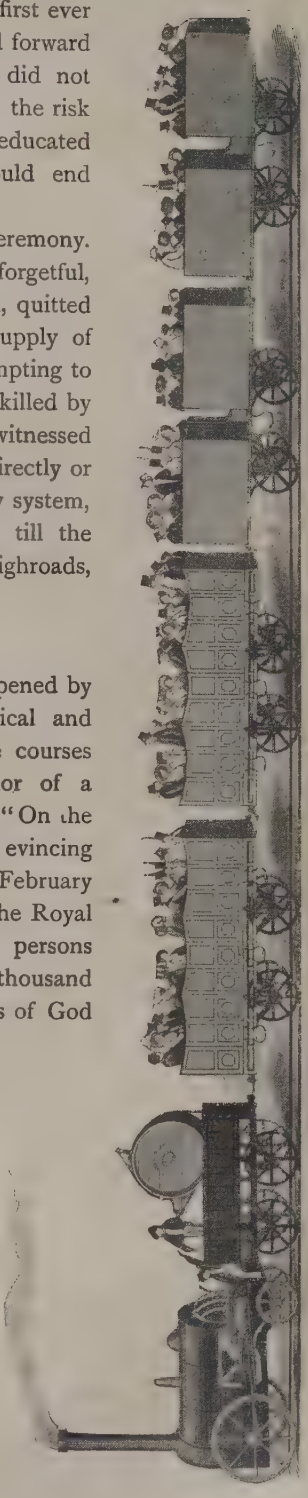
On the opening of the Liverpool and Manchester Railway, eight locomotives—all built by Stephenson on the model of his famous "Rocket"†—took part in the procession. The "Northumbrian" took the lead, drawing the carriage in which the Duke of Wellington, and other distinguished visitors, were seated. Each of the other locomotives drew four carriages, and the whole of the twenty-nine carriages conveyed six hundred persons.

* "Quarterly Review." No. 228.

† The "Rocket" was constructed by Stephenson in 1829, and competed in the trial of locomotive engines held at Rainhill, on the Liverpool and Manchester Railway, in October of that year, where it ran twenty-nine miles in an hour, and gained a prize of £500. It ceased running in 1843, and in 1862 was presented to the South Kensington Museum.

The Liverpool and Manchester Railway was the first ever used for passenger traffic. Its completion was looked forward to with as much anxiety as curiosity, and people did not hesitate to say it was "tempting Providence" to run the risk of travelling in such a fashion, and even among well-educated men, opinions were equally divided whether it would end in success or failure.

A melancholy event marked the opening ceremony. Mr. Huskisson, the great statesman, unmindful, or forgetful, of the instructions that had been clearly given to him, quitted the carriage when the train stopped to take in a supply of water, and losing his presence of mind, while attempting to re-enter the carriage, fell back across the rail, and was killed by a return engine. The Duke of Wellington, who witnessed the accident, could never afterwards be persuaded, directly or indirectly, to countenance the extension of the railway system, and continued in all his journeys to travel post, till the impossibility of finding horses along the deserted highroads, compelled him to abandon the practice.



LIVERPOOL AND MANCHESTER RAILWAY—SECOND AND THIRD CLASS, 1831.

In October, 1828, the London University was opened by the celebrated Professor Charles Bell, of anatomical and surgical fame, who delivered the first lecture of the courses dedicated to Medical Science. He was the author of a remarkable work—one of the Bridgewater Treatises—"On the Hand: Its Mechanism, and Vital Endowments as evincing Design." The Earl of Bridgewater by his will dated February 1825, left £8,000 at the disposal of the President of the Royal Society of London to be paid to the person or persons nominated by him to write, print, and publish one thousand copies of a work on the power, wisdom, and goodness of God as manifested in the creation, and Dr. Bell's book was one of the best of the series. It was he who made the important discovery that the nerve-filaments of sensation are distinct from those of motion—which attracted much attention and established his reputation.

A glance at the state of medical science at this time may not be out of place here. In the early part of the century there was almost as much faith in specialists for the treatment of peculiar diseases as there is to-day. A story is told of a farmer's wife, near London, who, when her husband was gored by an ox, took him to a cow doctress, instead of the village surgeon, because the latter, as she said, "knew nothing

about animals." Of another who concurrently visited three London physicians; one, for her nerves; one, for her lungs; and another for her heart. The idea is old as the hills; a relic of the times when people prayed to St. Anthony for cure of erysipelas; to St. Martin for smallpox: to St. Vitus for nervous disorders; to St. Barbara for toothache, and accepted no cure unless they applied at the right shrine among the fourteen "spiritual specialists."

It was not until the century was thirty years old that the principle was laid down that the general condition of a patient is of more importance than his local ailments; that disease is a change in him, rather than in some part of him, and that no treatment could be of real service which sacrifices the greater to the lesser.

For the treatment of delirium tremens, we find in the Encyclopedia of Practical Medicine (1833) that sixty drops of laudanum every two hours was considered a mild remedy; although many practitioners gave very much more. If the complaint did not yield to such persuasion the head of the patient was to be shaved and blistered. If a person suffered from rickets, leeches were to be applied to the forehead and neck, and repeated doses of antimony, calomel, and "grey powder" were to be administered.

In surgery, in case of accident, when a wound, or a burn, or a needful operation had bared to the bitter air its shrinking fibres—say of muscle or other tissue—the surgeon reckoned it to be his duty to *see* as much as possible what had happened, so as to guard the weak part from supposed injury by a number of disagreeable-looking things which he found there. Nowadays, the best physicians tell us that looking at a wound is to act like children who dig up their garden seeds to see how they are getting on.

In 1831 the resources of medical science were taxed to the uttermost. In that year the nation was visited by Asiatic cholera, "which frightful malady," says a chronicler, "first appearing in 1817 on the banks of the Ganges, gradually advanced to the northern shores of Great Britain, and reached them in the month of October of this year, before the close of which it found its way from Sunderland and Newcastle to the suburbs of the Metropolis, where, for a time, its outrages were generally confined to the victims of intemperance and vice; but it soon began to attack patients of all descriptions, and to spread from the capital into the provinces, so that scarcely any part of the Empire escaped this dreadful scourge." A Board of Health was established, and its reports were remarkable for the variety of opinions of medical practitioners it elicited as to the nature of the plague. This outbreak of cholera probably gave the first impetus of any consequence to sanitary researches. Scared by the appearance of the pestilence, persons of ordinary education began to think that "after all there might be some worse effect from an overflowing cesspool than an undesirable odour. It began to strike people that if the water of a town was supplied from sources contaminated by animal matter there might possibly be more serious consequences than a flatness of taste. They had yet, indeed, to learn what we now know—that the most cool and agreeable water may be impregnated with the elements of mischief. But, happily, in a large number of cases, both of bad water supplies and bad drainage, there is a felt inconvenience to the senses, and these cases suggested general inquiries, which eventually traced lurking sources of malaria even where the senses gave no alarm. It was long, however, before sanitary science made sufficient progress to announce certain and definite discoveries. In the meantime, the cholera had departed, and the bulk of the nation ceased to feel any very keen interest in the matter. But, by slow degrees, men of science made themselves heard, and men of action began to take up the subject as one of practical value."*

* Quarterly Review. No. 235.

We will digress for a moment to record an event which occurred in 1828, almost unparalleled in the annals of criminal atrocity. A man named Burke (an Irishman), living with a woman named Helen M'Dougal, coalesced with one Hare—who let lodgings for low travellers in the city of Edinburgh—to murder persons by wholesale, and dispose of their bodies to the teachers of anatomy. In that den of iniquity, according to the confession of the principal actor, sixteen persons, some in their sleep, others after intoxication, and several in a state of infirmity from disease, were suffocated by these demons in human shape. One of the men generally threw himself on the victim to hold him down, while the other "burked" him by forcibly pressing the nostrils and mouth, or the throat, with his hands. Hare being admitted as King's evidence, Burke and his other partner in guilt were arraigned on three counts. Helen M'Dougal was acquitted and Burke was executed; the shouts and execrations of the crowd were appalling.

FASTNET ROCK LIGHTHOUSE.
S.W. of Cork.

This crime gave a new word to our language. To "burke" is given in our dictionaries as (1) "to murder by suffocation so as to produce few signs of violence upon the victim." ["You don't mean to say he was 'burked,' Sam," said Mr. Pickwick (Dickens).] (2) "To smother, to shelve; as to 'burke' a Parliamentary question."

Lighthouses have been in existence, as everyone knows, from the most ancient times. Homer refers to them; Ptolemy Philadelphus built the Pharos of Alexandria three hundred years before the Christian era. On our own coasts, from very early times, coal fires were kept burning on the top of beacon towers by night, and were in existence until 1822. So late as 1811, twenty-four wax candles gave their feeble glimmer in the Eddystone lighthouse. It was not until 1822 that Auguste Fresnel brought forward his proposition for surrounding the flame of a gigantic lamp by lenses made in many rings of crown-glass, subtending an angle of 45 degrees. By this means "he gathered about one-third of the whole light, into a few sheaves of rays, which could be easily made to revolve, while the light, which radiated above these lenses, was sent

along the surface of the sea by a combination of lenses and mirrors." On October 1st, 1835, the first lens-light was exhibited in Great Britain at Inchkeith, in the Firth of Forth.

If the reader should ever chance to walk to Dover from St. Margaret's Bay, he will see at one point of the journey, the three great phases in the history of lighthouse illumination; the ancient Pharos adjoining the old church at Dover; a disused lighthouse of the beacon type; and the two South Foreland Lighthouses with their most modern electric appliances.

The story of the amazing development of electricity belongs to a later date, but it may be borne in mind that this potent force was at work in the period of which we write.

ANCIENT PHAROS NEAR DOVER CASTLE. *Jacolette, Photo.*

Many of the subjects to which we have referred in this chapter readily lent themselves to caricature. The successor in this art to Gillray, Rowlandson, James Sayer, and Henry Bunbury, was George Cruikshank. A new style and influence were introduced by him; he made little of political caricature, but his ambition was to draw what Hogarth called "moral comedies," pictures of society through a series of acts and scenes always pointed with some great moral.

Everybody knows his "Drunkard's Progress," and pictures of that kind; but his cleverest work, full of gems both of humour and gracefulness, are to be found in a book entitled "German Popular Stories," which appeared in 1834.

Caricature passed to a much higher style under John Doyle, the world-famous "H. B." Every production of his was entirely free from the scandalous coarseness of his predecessors, and his political satire was full of dignity and much gentlemanly

feeling. The old style of representing Fox with a fox's head, gave place to excellent portraits, and it was said that his fortune, in a professional sense, was made by three faces; those of the Duke of Wellington, King William IV., and Lord Brougham

"The provoking, sly, no-meaning look establishing itself on the iron mask of the first; the good-humoured, embarassed expression of the second, the infinity of grotesque fancies conveyed in the contorted face of the third; these were reproduced, week after week, for years, with a variety and fertility perfectly astounding."

It has been said that with the renowned "H. B." the line of regular British caricaturists closes. The advent of the new school did not occur until 1840, when the first number of *Punch* was published.

The period of Quaker Philanthropy was at this time in its zenith. They had worked for the slaves in the West Indies with heroic zeal; another class of subjects now claimed their sympathies. In the early part of the century lunatics were kept constantly chained to walls in dark cells and had nothing to lie upon but straw. The keepers visited them, whip in hand, and lashed them into obedience. They were also half-drowned in 'baths of surprise,' and in some cases semi-strangulation was resorted to. The 'baths of surprise' were so constructed that the patients, in passing over a trap door, fell in; some patients were chained in wells, and the water made to rise until it reached their chins. One horrible contrivance was a rotary chair in which patients were made to sit, and were revolved at a frightful speed. The chair was in common use. Patients, women as well as men, were flogged at particular periods, chained and fastened to iron bars, and even confined in iron cages.*

To counteract such enormities as these, the Society of Friends had started, and were successfully carrying on, a "retreat" at York on humane principles for insane members of their Society. Public attention was drawn to this enlightened experiment, and at the same time to the frightful abuses at a large asylum in the same city. These two antagonistic examples, thus shown side by side, led to beneficial results. A Committee of Inquiry sat, and eventually published such a mass of terrible information that Sydney Smith, reviewing the report, apologised for the disgust he must cause his readers by the horrible details he was compelled to quote.

Familiarity with the modern and scientific treatment of the insane is apt to make us forget that it is of quite recent birth, and that within the memory of some now living it would have been thought the wildest madness to dream of dealing with these afflicted beings otherwise than as with the most dangerous animals. Not in any country, or at any period before this century, was there a just conception of the insane as victims of disease, whom it was necessary to treat as such, and of mental derangement as the perverted function of a diseased organ. The horrible revelations of their miserable condition aroused public compassion, and there were found men of humane feelings and enlightened views sufficiently far-seeing, patient, resolute, and energetic to realise better feelings in a better system of treatment.†

New inventions for punishment and coercion were tried from time to time, but none for making the lot of the lunatic happier and easier. So late as 1815 there might have been seen in Bethlem a patient, once an officer in the navy, for whose "benefit" a new instrument of torture had been invented. "A stout iron ring was riveted round his neck, from which a short chain passed to a ring made to slide upwards or downwards on an

*"Lunacy; its Past and its Present," by Robert Gardiner Hill, F.S.A., p. 1.
†Westminster Review, XXIX. 333.

upright, massive iron bar, more than six feet high, inserted into the wall. Round his body a strong iron bar about two inches wide was riveted; on each side of the bar was a circular projection, which, being fashioned to and enclosing each of his arms, pinioned them close to his sides The waist-bar was secured by two similar bars, which, passing over his shoulders, were riveted to the waist-bar both before and behind. The iron ring round his neck was connected to his shoulders by a double link. From eacn of these bars another chain passed to the ring on the upright iron bar. His right leg was chained to the trough, in which he had remained thus encaged and enchained twelve years. He read books of all kinds, and reasoned quite coherently on the events of the war." During the whole of this period it was impossible for him, from the nature of his restraint, to stand quite upright, or to lie down at ease. He died in 1815, the year in which a Committee of Inquiry into the State of English Madhouses issued their report—a revelation of such frightful abuses, of such brutality and profligacy of keepers, of such wanton cruelty and hopeless suffering, that it is quite unfit to quote in any detail here. For those who wish to pursue the subject there is ample record in the works of the pioneers of more enlightened treatment.*

In June, 1827, the state of pauper lunatics in London was brought before the House of Commons by Mr. Robert Gordon, who moved in 1828 for "a Bill to amend the law for the regulation of Lunatic Asylums." Lord Ashley (afterwards Earl of Shaftesbury) made his first speech in Parliament in seconding the motion. The Bill, of which the principal features were the transferring of powers from the College of Physicians to fifteen Metropolitan Commissioners appointed by the Home Secretary, and the requirement of two medical certificates for private patients, was passed on July 15th, 1828. This was the beginning of a course of legislation which has now fulfilled almost all that can be desired in the humane treatment of the insane.

One of the greatest philanthropists of the day was David Nasmith, the founder of City Missions and Young Men's Christian Associations. In 1821, he undertook a task which will well bear imitation. The conductors of the various religious and benevolent societies in Glasgow, with a view to concentration, economy and efficiency, had procured a large and commodious edifice, which was divided into rooms and offices suitable to the respective bodies, and where the business of their several institutions might be transacted. The completion of their plan required the services of an active secretary who should be a kind of general agent, and common to them all David Nasmith was selected for this office, and he managed it admirably This brought him in contact with an enormous mass of moral evil, and he conceived this idea—"If these millions of men in our great cities are to be reached, it must be by men who have some common experiences of privation and suffering, men who have lived amongst them under similar circumstances, men who have fought with their special temptations and have experienced how hard it is for those once fallen to recover themselves; in short, the enlightening of the practical heathenism of our great cities requires an agency called out from itself, taught and trained in its own schools, masters of all its positions, and acquainted with all the difficulties of its subjects."†

He established the Glasgow and Dublin City Missions; in the United States he founded sixteen City Missions and the American Young Men's Society, and in Canada fifteen similar associations Then he came to London, where, in a room of his little

* "History of the Insane in the British Isles," by D. Hack Tuke, M.D.

†This idea has been largely carried out, in later years, in the work of the Salvation Army.

house in Canning Terrace, on the bank of the Regent's Canal, on May 16th, 1835, he met, by appointment, two other philanthropists. "After prayer," he says, "we three founded the London City Mission, adopted our constitution, assigned offices to each other, and after laying the infant mission before the Lord, desiring that He would nurse and bless it, and make it a blessing to tens of thousands, we adjourned." In this simple manner was commenced the London City Mission, one of the most admirable and valuable institutions of our time, and one that has been the means of conveying temporal and spiritual good to untold thousands.

On the evening of the same day, David Nasmith went to the house of Mr. George Seeley in Fleet Street, and met a party of young men, who then and there formed the Metropolitan Young Men's Association, which in 1844 became the Young Men's Christian Association.

In 1824 on the appeal of Sir William Hillary, the Royal National Institution for the Preservation of Life from Shipwreck was founded; but it was not for many years afterwards that its work assumed anything like the important dimensions which within the past fifty years has made it the admiration of all the world.

The capacity of the ordinary working man for intellectual enjoyment was proved in 1790, when the Sunday School teachers of Birmingham combined their efforts to afford simple instruction and moral guidance to the adults who had outgrown their classes. Shortly afterwards, the Birmingham Brotherly Society was formed which professed a like but somewhat higher aim; for scientific lectures were delivered, to which the labouring ranks were admitted gratis.

In 1800, George Birkbeck assisted in forming a mechanics' class, which in 1823 became the Glasgow Mechanics' Institution. The idea was taken up in Edinburgh and in London, and Dr. Birkbeck so zealously worked in the cause that its patrons reckoned among their number such names as Brougham, Denman, Hobhouse and Lushington. The London Mechanics' Institute was forthwith founded and the next ten years witnessed a very energetic movement in favour of similar undertakings throughout the Kingdom, which led eventually to the establishment of the Working Men's Educational Union, and a whole train of useful societies, having for their object a desire to arouse a spirit of inquiry by establishing village libraries, reading rooms, popular lectures with pictorial illustrations, and even the writing of essays under the stimulus of prizes. The London Mechanics' Institute, which Dr. Birkbeck founded in 1822 is still in existence, doing excellent work, and is known as the Birkbeck Literary and Scientific Institute. Between 1822 and 1837 scarcely any books of science were accessible, great objections being raised by many to the idea of working men acquiring scientific knowledge, and one well-known writer said "Science and learning if universally diffused would speedily overturn the best constituted Government on earth."

We will now extend our survey and see what progress was being made further afield.

Owing to the cessation of war, and the continued introduction of new machinery, which threw masses of the people out of work, there was a spirit of discontent throughout the country, and the question affecting the minds of thoughtful people was, what was to be done with the unemployed and surplus population. The only practical scheme seemed to be to send them to some British colony to relieve the mother-country of her too heavy burden, and at the same time to open up new spheres

of commerce and enlarge others already in existence. As we have seen* colonisation up to that time was not a marked success. New South Wales was still a penal settlement and Van Diemen's Land (Tasmania) was, until 1824, a dependency of New South Wales. It had but a poor reputation in consequence of its convict population, the hostility of the natives, and the depredations of bushrangers. What trade there was in either of these colonies was in the hands of early convicts who had served their time.

In 1829, the Swan River Settlement in Western Australia was founded, and for a time attracted many well-to-do families to emigrate there. It was soon discovered, however, that the Colony had been established on an altogether wrong basis, and that disastrous consequences would, in course of time, ensue. Free grants of land had been made in enormous quantities, and had been selected before the Colonists sailed. In one case, an individual had been granted half a million of acres, and, as he naturally selected his 'lot' close by the Port, other emigrants had to go beyond this vast and most eligible tract before they could settle. Ultimately, land was sold, but at the ridiculously low price of 1/6 per acre, and, as everybody who went out was thus enabled to become a landed proprietor, no labourers were found to cultivate the soil. The result, which far-seeing men had apprehended, was soon realised; the scheme was almost a total failure.

When colonisation became the great subject of the day, "The National Colonisation Society" was founded, the object of which was the collection and diffusion of information as to the best places for establishing colonies, and to explain and recommend the system of colonisation devised by Mr. Edward Gibbon Wakefield, whose striking pamphlet on the subject (written in prison, into which a daring and lawless deed had cast him) had stirred up a great enthusiasm in England.

Mr. Wakefield advanced the theory that free grants of land should be entirely abolished; that Crown land should not be sold at low prices; that hired labour could never be obtained side by side with great cheapness of land; "that the exchange of land for labour was the only method of realising a just proportion between land, labour, and capital," and that "the universal sale of land, instead of land grants, and the exclusive employment of the purchasers' money to promote education" should be the principle upon which colonisation in the future should be based.

In 1831 when John Mill, Malthus, Sir Francis Burdett, Labouchere, Milne, Sir Henry Parnell, and many other influential men were engaged in advocating these principles, full particulars arrived in England of the splendid services rendered to the world by the discoveries made in Australia by Captain Sturt, the famous explorer, who had succeeded in tracing the course of the two great rivers, the Darling and the Murray. He was able to report: "A spot has at length been found upon the south coast of New Holland to which colonists might venture with every prospect of success, and in whose valleys the exile might hope to build for himself and for his family, a peaceful and prosperous home. All who have ever landed upon the Eastern shore of St. Vincent's Gulf, agree as to the richness of its soil and the abundance of its pastures."

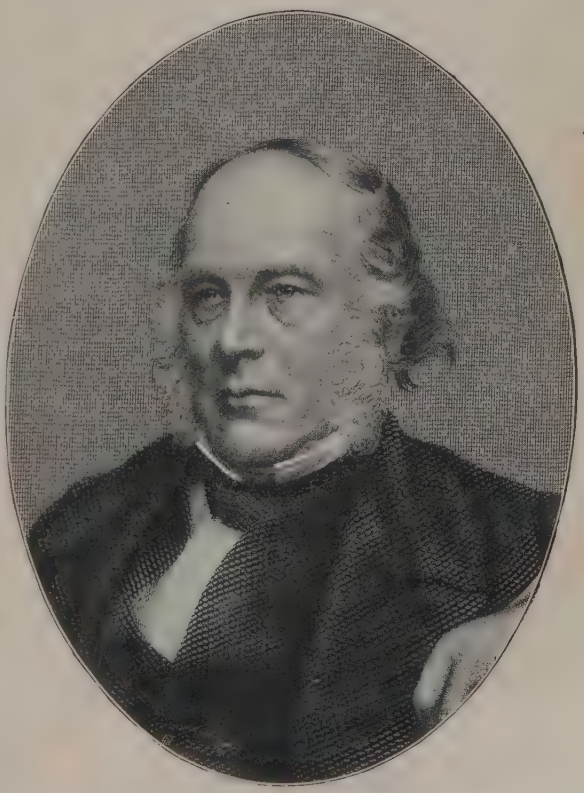
Mr. Gouger, one of the principal agents in the movement, at first proposed a Joint Stock Land Company as a means of colonising the new country opened up by Sturt. This scheme, however, fell through and he founded the "South Australian Association," of which he became the Secretary, George Grote (the historian of Greece) the Treasurer, and Rowland Hill (afterwards the founder of the penny post) one of its members. The large Committee was formed of men of mark with high characters to sustain, and it was thought that young men and heads of families in the middle classes who had the sense

* See pages 99-106.

to see the difficulties that beset their order in England, might decide on being amongst the founders of a colony in which no such difficulties could exist, and where the clang of the convict's chain should never be heard. While the labours of the Committee continued, and the number of adherents to the principles upon which the colony was to be founded increased, successive Governments hampered their movements, caused irritating delays, and retarded their progress. Scheme after scheme was proposed, but it was not until 1834 that Lord Howick, Mr. J. Shaw-Lefevre, Lord Stanley, and Mr. Spring Rice supported a Bill "to erect South Australia into a British province and to provide for the colonisation and Government thereof." In the House of Lords the Bill was introduced by the Marquis of Normanby, and was so warmly supported by the Duke of Wellington, that on the 15th of August in that year, the last day of the Session, it received the Royal assent. One of the conditions was that the commissioners to be appointed to carry out the scheme should invest £20,000 in Exchequer Bills, and purchase £35,000 worth of land before they could enter upon their functions. This caused a further delay and the Act would have become inoperative had not Mr. George Fife Angas undertaken to supply the necessary funds, and to establish the "South Australian Company" for the purpose of providing everything necessary for the wants, safety, and comfort, of immigrants on their arrival in the country.

THE GENERAL POSTMAN IN FORMER DAYS.

On the 28th of December, 1836, H.M.S. 'Buffalo' with Captain Hindmarsh, the first Governor, on board, entered Holdfast Bay. After landing, the little band of pioneers gathered in and around the tent of Mr. Gouger, the first Colonial Secretary, and under the shade of an old gum tree (which still remains, though in a state of decay) the proclamation was read establishing South Australia, the only free British province of New Holland.



SIR ROWLAND HILL.

"It was a day long to be remembered. A band of brave-hearted men and women had staked their fortunes, left home and friends and country, and journeyed to the antipodes to settle in a land almost uninhabited, unsurveyed, with no town laid out, nor even the site of the intended capital selected. And amongst the number assembled that day on the Glenelg Plain were men who were to be the "Makers" of the new colony—men who were to bear the burden and heat of the day, and by their toil, judgment, and persistence lay the foundations of healthy political, social, and religious life in one of the finest lands on which the sun ever shone."*

During the year 1836, fifteen vessels arrived from England bringing nearly a thousand persons, and from that time forth population steadily grew. The site of the capital, Adelaide (so named after Queen Adelaide, Consort of William IV.) was in every respect worthy of the position to which the colony was shortly to attain. Little trouble

GOUGER'S TENT AND HUT.

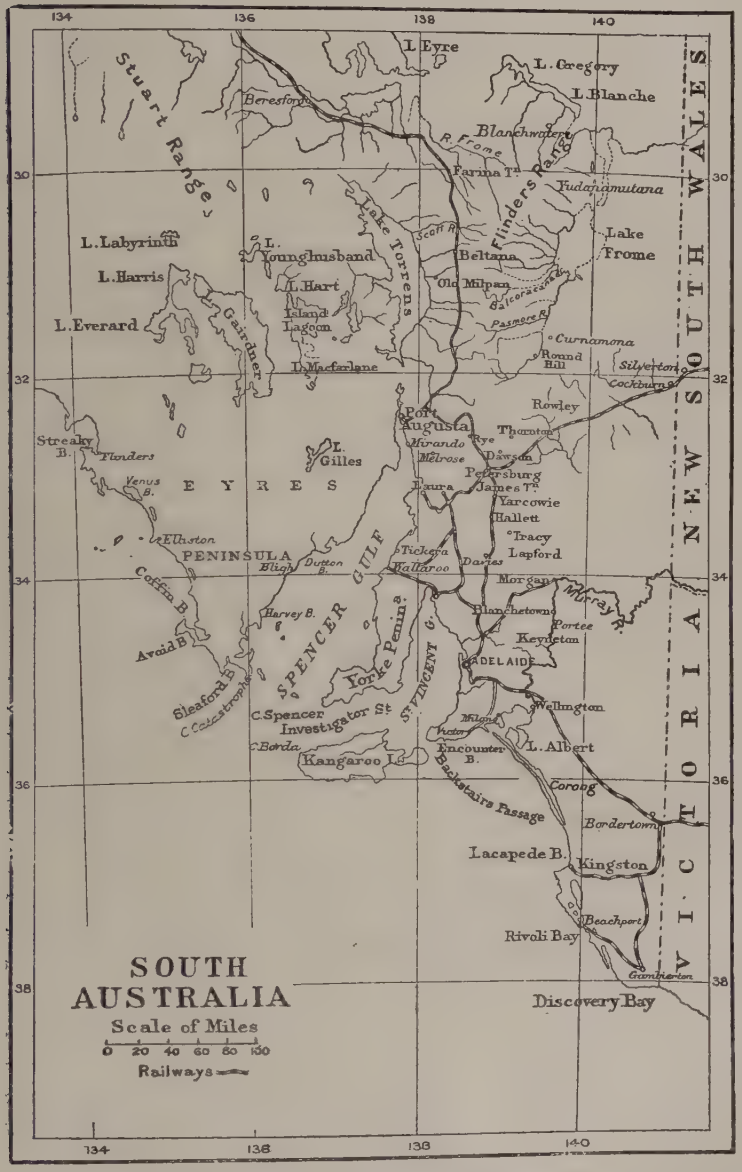
was given by the natives, a route for the importation of cattle was soon opened up, enormous tracts of country were available, and land purchasers became abundant.

The first Governor, Captain Hindmarsh, was a failure, and was peremptorily recalled. His successor, Colonel Gawler, was a man of great ability and intense enthusiasm for the success of the colony, but he drew Bills for large amounts which the Home Government dishonoured, and for a time, the colony was in a state of complete bankruptcy, from which there was no recovery until Sir George Grey became the popular Governor in 1841.

New Zealand was discovered by Tasman in 1642, and was visited by Captain Cook in 1769 and 1774. A missionary settlement was formed there in 1815, but no regular

* The History of South Australia, by Edwin Hodder. Vol. I, p. 60.

authority was established by the British Government till 1833 when a Resident was appointed, with limited powers, and subordinate to the government of New South Wales. When, however, in 1836, an important inquiry into Colonial Lands was being prosecuted under the chairmanship of Mr. (afterwards Sir) Henry George Ward, Mr. Edward Gibbon Wakefield, who was under examination as to suitable fields for emigration, said :—"Very near to Australia there is a country which all testimony concurs in describing as the fittest country in the world for colonisation; as the most beautiful country, with the finest climate and the most productive soil; I mean New Zealand. It will be said that New Zealand does not belong to the British Crown; and that is true. But Englishmen are beginning to colonize New Zealand. New Zealand is coming under the dominion of the British Crown. Adventurers go from New South Wales and Van Diemen's Land, and make a treaty with a native chief, a tripartite (or triplicate) treaty; the poor chief not understanding a single word about it; but they make a contract upon parchment, with a great seal; for a few trinkets, and a little gunpowder they obtain land. After a time, after some persons have settled, the Government begins to receive hints that there is a regular settlement of English people formed in such a place; and then the Government at home generally has been actuated by a wish to appoint a Governor and says 'This spot belongs to England; we will send



out a Governor.' The act of sending out a Governor, according to British constitution, or law, or practice, constitutes the place to which a Governor is sent, a British province. We are, I think, going to colonize New Zealand, though we be doing so in a most slovenly and scrambling, and disgraceful manner."*

At this time, as we have seen, the Duke of Wellington was pledged to the establishment of South Australia, and he thought "we had enough colonies;" it was not, therefore, until 1840 that New Zealand was erected into a colony; in 1841 it was formally separated from New South Wales, and placed under its own independent governor, and in 1852 it received a constitution and responsible government.

In Van Diemen's Land, or Tasmania, the convict system was working out its own destruction and proving that transportation and free immigration can never work side by side.

"This fertile colony," wrote a historian, "full of resources, and possessing an admirable climate, governed on enlightened principles, and furnished with religious institutions, presented moral features of a very alarming nature; for instead of a free and simple peasantry, respectable artisans, and upright citizens, scarcely anything was to be seen but the dregs of prisons; some still in a convict state; others indulged with a revocable freedom; and many arrived at incredible opulence, yet branded with the stigma of their original conviction. Such a state of disorganisation threatened posterity with so strange a combination of moral and political disorder, that the attention of statesmen was drawn more closely to the investigation and remedy of this evil."

A visitor to Van Diemen's Land in 1837 wrote:—

"The influence of transportation (convictism) extends itself beyond the sphere of those immediately connected with the management of it. The women and children of the highest class are frequently prejudicially affected by it; they become tyrannical, vindictive, and severe . . . I have heard ladies using language to which their ears have become habituated by the propinquity of their convict servants, which, when they first arrived in the Colony, must have been abhorrent to them. I have heard ladies threaten their men with a 'little bit of solitary' for misdemeanours of the most pardonable kind, and I have known a lady order her servant to drive her to the police office, where she laid a complaint against him; his back was 'scratched' or 'teazled' to use Colonial phrases—in English, he was flogged—and he was then ordered to drive back the fair mistress. The children are brought up with these examples before them, and I have heard them, when just escaping from infancy, hold out similar threats to their female servants, who were, a few months before, their nurses."

As showing the moral contagion to which families were exposed, Prinsep, in his "Letters from Van Diemen's Land," wrote about the same time, "Freemen will not take service, and so the convicts supply all demands; and if the histories of every house were made public, you would shudder; even in our small ménage, our cook has committed murder, our footman burglary, and our housemaid bigamy!"

In 1834 the Tasmanians had a way of escape open to them, and they availed themselves of it by settling in what has long been known as Victoria, in the South East of Australia, but was then known as Port Phillip, and formed part of New South Wales. Of its astounding rise and progress, of its erection into a separate colony (in 1851), with

*Quoted in "Edward Gibbon Wakefield" by Dr. R. Garnett.

Melbourne as its capital, we shall write later on. It will be enough to say here that "the smallest of our southern colonies except Tasmania—one fourth the size of New South Wales, one-eighth of Queensland, one-twelfth of West Australia, one-fifteenth of South Australia—Victoria is the wealthiest of the Australian nations, and, India alone excepted, has the largest trade of any of the dependencies of Great Britain."*

In India, under the Governor-Generalship of Lord William Bentinck, who succeeded Lord Amherst in 1828, the same spirit of progress was abroad that was influencing affairs at home, and a series of financial reforms was going forward in every

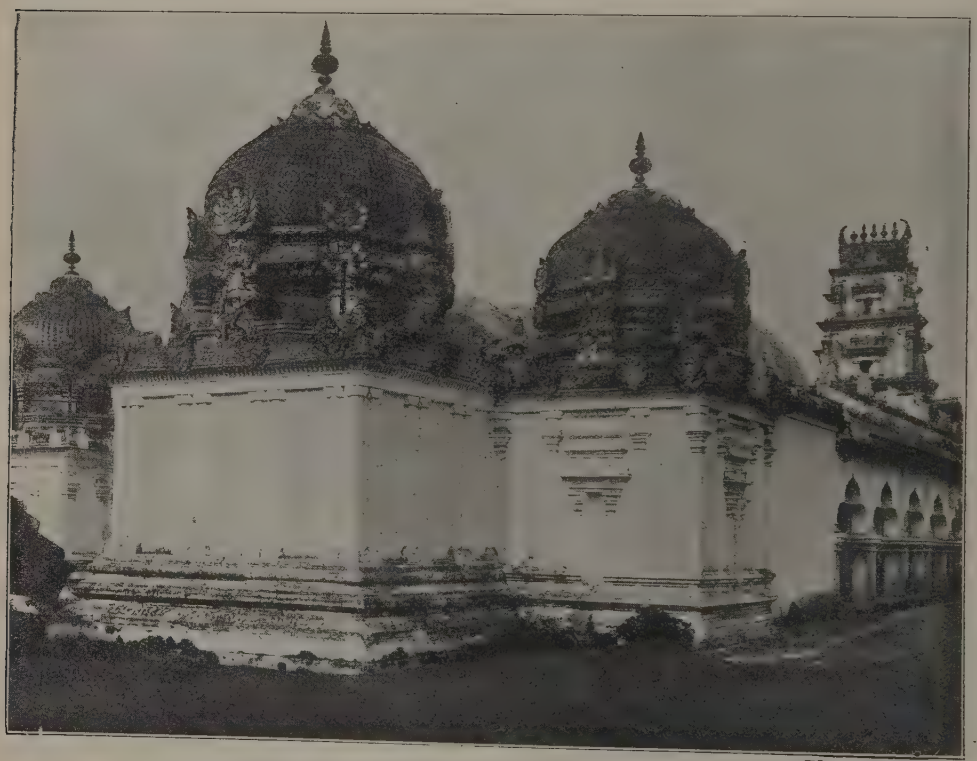
Photochrom. Co.

COLLYER QUAI, SINGAPORE.

department of the Government. The expiration of the Company's charter and the arrangements for its renewal led, in 1833, to a total change of system, and marked an epoch in the history of British India. The Company was deprived of its exclusive right of trade; commerce with India and China was thrown fully open to all British subjects; the political government of Hindostan was continued to the Company for twenty years, but all its other rights and possessions were ceded to the nation for a large consideration.

* Dilke's "Greater Britain."

One of the most daring of pioneer expeditions was undertaken in January, 1832, when Mr. (afterwards Sir) Alexander Burnes started on his heroic attempt to cross the Indus and India Caucasus, and pass by the route of Balkh, Bokhara and Samarcund to the Aral and Caspian Seas to Persia, and thence to return by sea to Bombay. It was an undertaking as difficult as it was dangerous, for the object of his journey was to spy out the land at the instigation of Lord William Bentinck, who was at the time much harassed by the Home Government about the supposed designs of Russia in the countries bordering the Oxus and the Caspian. Among the Sikhs and the Afghans in Bokhara and Teheran, wherever Burnes went, he made friends for himself and fully accomplished his mission in furthering the interests of the Government.



Photochrom. Co.

KLING TEMPLE, SINGAPORE.

In 1826, Assam, on the north-east border of Bengal, became the possession of Britain, being taken by the Burmese, who had made themselves masters of it, about the end of the eighteenth century. Tea, the article of most commercial importance of all its products, was first exported in 1838, the yield of which was in 1890 over 60,000,000 lbs. annually.

In 1819 the British obtained permission to build a factory, or establish a settlement, on the southern shore of the island of Singapore, one of the Straits Settlements, and by treaty in 1824, purchased from the Sultan of Johore in the Malay Peninsula opposite, the fee simple of the island which is about twenty-five miles long by fourteen wide; thus securing to this country a "lion's share" in the lucrative commerce of the Indian Archipelago.

It was reserved for brave men of the nineteenth century to solve the mysteries of the great African Continent, and especially the source of the Nile, a mystery "which Sesostris sought to unravel, which Alexander the Great was never weary of discussing, which tempted Julius Cæsar to spend nights and days with the Egyptian priests, striving to acquire from them information they did not possess, which Napoleon left unsolved, notwithstanding his passion for scientific as for military conquests, and which, in more modern days, baffled the enterprise of Mehemet Ali."

James Bruce, a Scottish gentleman, holding the office of Consul at Algiers, where he acquired a knowledge of Arabic and studied all that was known of African geography and customs, had from boyhood set before himself the glory of being the solver of this ancient mystery, and in 1768 he started for Cairo, navigated the Nile to Syene, crossed the desert to the Red Sea, passed some months in Arabia Felix, and reached Gondar, the capital of Abyssinia, in 1770, whence he proceeded up the Blue Nile to the three fountains. His "Travels" were not published until 1790, and some of the incidents were received with great incredulity, especially the story of "a couple of rump-steaks being extracted from a cow while alive, the wound sewn up, and the animal driven on farther." Bruce, who went through marvellous adventures unscathed, ended his career by accidentally falling down stairs and breaking his neck in 1794. When Bruce, in 1768, sought for the sources of the Nile in the mountains of Abyssinia, he had no information to guide him except the vaguest reports and the accounts of ancient geographers. He thought he had solved the problem, but it was not to be solved thus, and numerous expeditions succeeded his, the most important being those sent out by the late Mehemet Ali between 1835 and 1841, but the story of the discovery of the sources of the Nile belongs to a yet later period.

From the west coast at various points, efforts, more or less successful, were made to reach the large towns of the interior of Africa, of which Timbuctoo was regarded as the chief; Mungo Park in 1795, Mollien in 1818, Major Laing in 1822, and Caillié in 1828,* all made the attempt, each advancing part of the way and determining many important positions.

Hugh Clapperton accompanied by Dr. Oudney and Lieutenant Denham explored Africa from 1816 to 1825, and in that latter year Clapperton set forth again, but he was stopped in his exploration by a local potentate, and died in 1827. He was the first European who traversed the whole of Central Africa from the Bight of Benin to the Mediterranean. Richard Lander, his companion, saved his papers and afterwards solved the long doubtful problem respecting the course of the Niger, and proved that it entered the sea by several mouths at the Bight of Benin.

Valuable and intensely interesting as these early African explorations are, they pale before the greater efforts carried out under the auspices of the Royal Geographical Society (founded in 1830) to which we shall refer in due course.

Cape Colony had been, from 1652 to the end of last century, held by the Dutch East India Company. It was held by the British from 1795 to 1801, and it came finally into British possession in 1806. When General Craig took possession of the Colony, he issued a proclamation in which he gave the following liberal programme:—"The monopoly and the oppression hitherto practised for the profit of the East India Company

* Caillié's account of his travels excited great public interest, and Tennyson began his poetic career by a poem in blank verse on the subject of the mysterious African capital, entitled "Timbuctoo," for which he received the Chancellor's medal at Cambridge in 1829.

is at an end. From this day forward there is free trade and a free market. Everyone may buy from whom he will, sell to whom he will, employ whom he will, and come and go whenever and wherever he chooses, by land or by water. No new taxes will be levied; such as are at present in existence, will as soon as possible, be taken into consideration, and those which are found to be oppressive to the people will be done away with. The paper money shall continue to hold its value, but the English make their payments in hard coin." Many of the former servants of the Dutch Company were retained as officials of the new Government, and a burgher Senate was established to represent the views of the colonists to the authorities. It consisted of six members, and vacant seats at the Board were filled by the British representative from a list put before him by the senators. Its duties were chiefly municipal, but it was allowed to call the attention of the Government to any matters affecting the interests of the colonists. Such measures as these, which were highly liberal for those days, allayed the doubts of the burghers as to the intentions of their new masters, and the stalwarts of Graaff Reinet, who had at first refused to submit to British rule, decided to make the best of matters in a peaceable spirit.*

This sounded well, but only a few years elapsed before all the good things promised, vanished into thin air. Earl Macartney and successive governors, came into collision with the Dutch, irruptions by the Kaffirs exposed the settlements to much danger in the constant wars that prevailed, and slow progress was made. In 1820 and 1821 British settlers began to arrive in greater numbers—about five thousand in all—but while our settlements were extending themselves towards the interior of the country and increasing in commercial prosperity, the quiet of the country was disturbed (1823-24) by the unpopularity of its Governor, Lord Charles Somerset,† and a Parliamentary Commission was sent out to investigate the affairs of the Colony, with the result that Lord Charles Somerset was recalled. Under the rule of Sir Benjamin D'Urban, "one of the most humane and kindly of men" and Sir George Napier, his successor, the Colony struggled on, disturbed by internal dissensions and Kaffir raids, until in 1836 hundreds of the Dutchmen "sick of a system which put the reins of government into the hands of a convicted libeller, the more enterprising of them decided that life under the British flag could no longer be endured, and that it would be better to leave their kinsmen and their homes and go out into the wilderness, than stay in the colony where they had suffered so much injustice. Forty years of misrepresentation and meddling by missionaries, unsympathetic government by well-meaning but ignorant British noblemen, and foolish interference by the home authorities—who at the bidding of a misinformed Society overrode the actions of the first really great man that they had sent to the Cape—were practically summed up by this remarkable exodus of the Dutchmen, who preferred all the hazards and hardships of life in the interior to the protection of such an administration."‡ They issued a manifesto in which some of the most prominent and immediate of the causes of their emigration were set forth. The following clauses are extracted from it :—

"We despair of saving the colony from those evils which threaten it by the turbulent and dishonest conduct of vagrants, who are allowed to infest the country in every part.

"We complain of the severe losses which we have been forced to sustain by the emancipation of our slaves.

* "The English and Dutch in South Africa," by Hartley Withers, 1896.

† "A story is told in Cape Town that when, on his first arrival, he was driven to his official residence, he asked what that building was, and when he heard that it was Government House, exclaimed, "Government House! D—— it, I took it for a dog-kennel!"

‡ "The English and the Dutch in South Africa," by Hartley Withers.

"We complain of the continual system of plunder which we have for years endured from the Kaffirs and other coloured classes, and particularly by the last invasion of the colony, which has desolated the frontier district and ruined most of its inhabitants.

"We complain of the unjustifiable odium which has been cast upon us by interested and dishonest persons, under the name of religion, whose testimony is believed in England to the exclusion of all evidence in our favour."

In 1837 Natal was founded by Dutch settlers, who had made their way from the Cape of Good Hope. At first they were independent, but in 1841 Natal was placed under British rule.

Of the amazing development of the Cape, of its illimitable treasures, of its startling story of successes and failures, we shall not write at present.

In 1824, when disputation was at its height in Cape Colony, tragical events were taking place in another part of the great African Continent. The administrators of the small British settlements on the Gold Coast (which was made a Crown Colony in 1821 by transfer from an African Company of 1750) having imprudently taken part in the quarrels of the natives and violated the terms of the treaty concluded some years before with the powerful King of the Ashantees, were attacked by a large army of warlike and well-appointed troops under the command of that monarch. Sir Charles Macarthy, Governor of Sierra Leone, having advanced against them with a few Europeans aided by some thousands of barbarian allies, much inferior in both courage and means to his antagonists, was defeated with a dreadful carnage, especially of his British followers, and the loss of his own life. This lamentable catastrophe excited alarm for the safety of our principal establishment at Cape Coast Castle; but the "Thetis" frigate having opportunely arrived with a few troops, and the garrison being strengthened by a small body of auxiliaries from Accra, the enemy was repulsed and compelled to raise the siege which they had laid to the fort; Colonel Sutherland afterwards overthrew them in several other engagements, and these defeats, together with famine and disease, put an end to their desultory hostilities.*

W. Haines.

ADMIRAL PARRY.

The North Polar Region has always had a peculiar charm for the people of this country, for the record of maritime and especially of Arctic enterprise runs like a bright silver thread through the history of the English nation, lighting up its darkest periods and giving cause for just pride and satisfaction. A great revival of interest in Arctic expeditions took place towards the end of the first quarter of the century, and it is impossible to overrate in imagination the toil, the danger, the hardships and privations, the noble daring, the unflinching endurance, the unselfish devotion, and the high sentiment of professional duty, which were necessarily involved in these early explorations.

* Hughes' "History." VII., 27.

In 1818, two expeditions were fitted out by the Admiralty and were sent forth to search for a North-West Passage with the view of opening up shorter routes to the Indies, of seeking fresh sources of commercial wealth, and of reaching the North Pole. One expedition was under Commander John Ross in the "Isabella," and the other under W. E. Parry (afterwards Sir Edward Parry) in the "Alexander," their destination being the North-West Passage, while John Franklin, in the "Trent," was directed to search for the Pole.

Both expeditions were unsuccessful, although the first voyage of John Ross proved the substantial accuracy of the discoveries made by Baffin in the bay that bears his name, at the same time that it corrected his imperfect longitudes. In 1819, Parry went forth again with the "Hecla" and "Griper," "penetrated in a straight line westward through Baffin's newly-verified Sound of Sir John Lancaster, giving the eminent name of Barrow to the Straits which he found to be its continuation, and saw the loom of Banks' Land in the south-western distance before he wintered on the coast of Melville Island." The second expedition of Parry in 1821-2 was "intended for a movement in combination with the overland journey of Franklin and Richardson from the farthest posts of the Hudson's Bay Company to the coast which had been seen by Hearne and Mackenzie. Parry followed out the tracing of the line of the American continent to the north of Hudson's Strait and Fox Channel, along Melville Peninsula to the Fury and Hecla Strait which opens into the water afterwards named by Ross the Gulf of Boothia, in honour of Mr. Felix Booth, a wealthy Sheriff of London, much interested in Arctic matters. In his third expedition 1822-25, Parry tried a fresh cast upon his former track through Lancaster Sound, turning southward into the wide mouth of Prince Regent's Inlet which he had christened in passing on his first voyage. The limits to which he penetrated this channel southward in two years are marked on the chart by the name of Fury Beach, where the ship "Fury" was pressed on shore by the ice, and Cape Garry, the farthest headland in sight on his southern horizon.

SIR JOHN FRANKLIN.

"Captain John Ross followed the same path in 1829 in the "Victory," navigated down the coasts of North Somerset and Boothia as far as Victory Harbour (lat. 70°), the starting-place from which his nephew James Ross traversed with his sledging party the Boothian Isthmus and explored westward the Strait which bears his name, and the shore line of King William's Land as far as Point Victory."

Even more interesting than the labours of Parry and Ross, on the Arctic Seas, were those of Franklin, Back, and Richardson on land.

Franklin was selected by the Government for the great enterprise of descending the Coppermine River, which, like the Mackenzie, carries a portion of the waters of Arctic North America into the Polar Ocean. He set sail in May 1819, accompanied by Dr. Richardson, Lieutenant Back, and Lieutenant Hood. They went forward over seven hundred miles of hitherto unexplored river, over rapids and falls, and obstacles innumer-

able until their Indian guide warned them that to advance any farther meant for the whole party to perish, and they reluctantly settled in winter quarters at Fort Enterprise, near the head of the Coppermine, the distance travelled in the course of the year 1820 having been 1,520 miles. As winter advanced, starvation stared them in the face; their ammunition was exhausted, and the nearest supplies were at Fort Chippewayan, 500 miles away. The gallant Lieutenant Back volunteered to go that distance over ice and snow to bring succour to his companions. Day by day he travelled on, and night after night he camped out in the icy cold, but never pausing in his task till he came back to his starving friends with sledges laden with all needful supplies, having accomplished the unprecedented feat of traversing 1,104 miles.

On renewing their journey in July, 1821, a series of disasters befell them; several of the company, including Franklin, were nearly starved to death; Dr. Richardson had to throw away his valuable collection of plants and minerals; their Canadian assistants grew mutinous, and the day came when the party felt that the struggle for life could no longer be continued. Then a faithful seaman named Hepburn, by gathering *tripe-de-roche*, a kind of lichen found on the rocks, ministered to them. This only lasted for a while; several of the men died; an Iroquois Indian murdered Lieutenant Hood for which he promptly received his death punishment at the hands of Dr. Richardson. Then, famine-stricken and feeble, they crawled along; at one time Franklin and his companions had not tasted meat for thirty-one days. They reached Fort Chippewayan, and returned to England, having travelled 5,550 miles, principally over ground hitherto unknown, and amid sufferings almost unparalleled. The story of this voyage of discovery as told by Franklin in simple and manly style created a great impression at the time, and may still be read with pleasure. It was not until the year 1845 that he undertook that further Arctic journey which has made his name famous for ever.

THE HENLEY COACH, 1812–14.

Engraving on an old horn drinking-cup.

CHAPTER XXI.

QUEEN VICTORIA.

AT twenty minutes past two in the early morning of Tuesday, the 20th of June, 1837, King William IV. breathed his last at Windsor Castle, and immediately afterwards the Archbishop of Canterbury (Dr. Howley) and the Lord Chamberlain (the Marquis of Conyngham) posted off at high speed to Kensington to convey to the young Princess Alexandrina Victoria, daughter of the Duke of Kent (fourth son of George III.) the tidings of the death of her uncle, the King, and of her own accession to the throne.

TIDINGS OF THE KING'S DEATH.

So often as the story of that event is told, will be quoted the well-known narrative so simply related by Miss Wynn* of how the young queen, who had then only just completed her eighteenth year, received the news. The distinguished messengers did

* "Diaries of a Lady of Quality."

not reach Kensington Palace until five o'clock in the morning. "They knocked, they rang, they thumped for a considerable time before they could rouse the porter at the gate; they were again kept waiting in the courtyard, then turned into one of the lower rooms, where they seemed forgotten by everybody. They rang the bell, and desired that the attendant of the Princess Victoria might be sent to inform Her Royal Highness that they requested an audience on business of importance. After another delay, and another ringing to inquire the cause, the attendant was summoned, who stated that the Princess was in such a sweet sleep that she could not venture to disturb her. Then they said, 'We are come on business of State to the Queen, and even her sleep must give way to that.' It did; and to prove that she did not keep them waiting, in a few minutes she came into the room in a loose white nightgown and shawl, her nightcap thrown off, and her hair falling upon her shoulders, her feet in slippers, tears in her eyes, but perfectly collected and dignified."

Another account says that the Queen's first words to the Archbishop on hearing his announcement were, "I beg your Grace to pray for me," and that her first request to her mother, when she learned that she was Queen, was that "she might be left for two hours quite alone."*

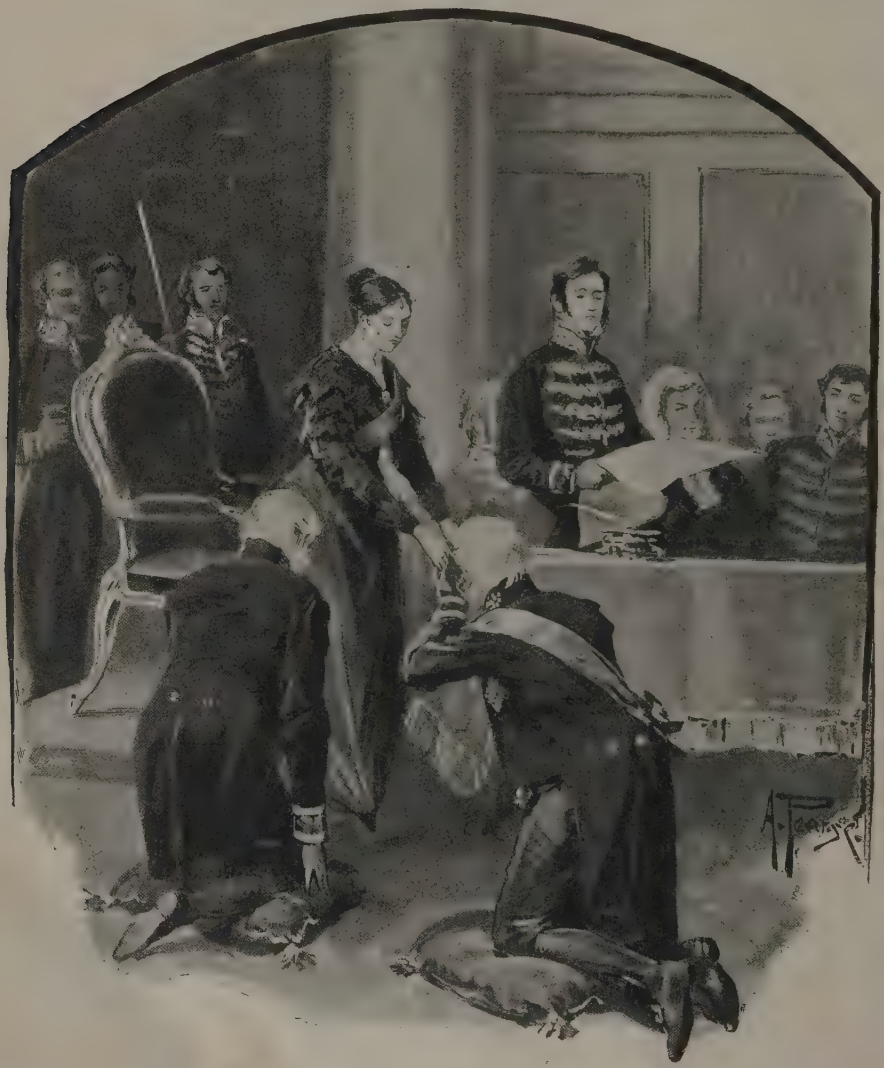
Then came the duty of writing to the widowed Queen Adelaide at Windsor. The letter was full of sympathising condolence and affection, and the writer "earnestly begged her dear aunt to stay at Windsor as long as she pleased." It was noticed that the letter was addressed to "Her Majesty the Queen." Someone, who had a right to speak, observed that this was not correct, and that it should be directed to "Her Majesty the Queen-Dowager." "I am aware of that," said the girl-queen; "but I will not be the first to remind her of her altered position."

Lord Melbourne, the Prime Minister, was summoned, and at eleven o'clock that same morning a Privy Council was held, which *must* be described in the words of Charles Greville, an eye witness:—"Never was anything like the first impression she produced, or the chorus of praise and admiration which is raised about her manner and behaviour, and certainly not without justice. It was very extraordinary, and something far beyond what was looked for. Her extreme youth and inexperience, and the ignorance of the world concerning her, naturally excited intense curiosity to see how she would act on this trying occasion, and there was a considerable assemblage at the palace, notwithstanding the short notice which was given. The first thing to be done was to teach her her lesson, which for this purpose Melbourne had himself to learn. . . . She bowed to the lords, took her seat, and then read her speech in a clear, distinct, and audible voice, and without any appearance of fear or embarrassment. She was quite plainly dressed, and in mourning. After she had read her speech, and taken and signed the oath for the security of the Church of Scotland, the privy councillors were sworn, the two royal dukes first by themselves; and as these two old men, her uncles, knelt before her, swearing allegiance, and kissing her hand, I saw her blush up to the eyes, as if she felt the contrast between their civil and their natural relations, and this was the only sign of emotion which she evinced. Her manner to them was very graceful and engaging; she kissed them both, and rose from her chair and moved towards the Duke of Sussex, who was farthest from her, and too infirm to reach her. She seemed rather bewildered at the multitude of men who were sworn, and who came, one after another, to kiss her hand, but she did not speak to anybody, nor did she make the slightest difference in her manner, or show any in her countenance, to any individual of any rank,

* "Victoria," by Millicent G. Fawcett.

station, or party. I particularly watched her when Melbourne and the Ministers, and the Duke of Wellington and Peel approached her. She went through the whole ceremony, occasionally looking at Melbourne for instruction when she had any doubt what to do, which hardly ever occurred, and with perfect calmness and self-possession, but at the same time with a graceful modesty and propriety particularly interesting and ingratiating."

When the Queen signed the oath for the security of the Church of Scotland, it was observed with interest and surprise that she wrote only "Victoria" and not "Alexandrina." The name the Duke of Kent had intended to give her at her baptism was Alexandrina Georgiana, the first name in compliment to the Emperor Alexander of



"SHE ROSE FROM HER CHAIR AND MOVED TOWARDS THE DUKE."

Russia, and the second in honour of the "Georges." To the latter name, however, the Regent objected on the ground that it should stand first if it stood at all; but as the Duke of Kent had made up his mind that Alexandrina should be the first name,

Georgiana was happily omitted, and Victoria—"prophetic, as it has turned out, of the character of the coming reign"—was substituted.

The first signature to the Act of Allegiance was that of Ernest, Duke of Cumberland, eldest surviving brother of the late King William. To him the Crown of Hanover, which for a hundred and twenty-five years had been held by the occupants of the British throne, passed, it being limited in its descent to the male line. The separation was an event in no way to be regretted; the possession of two thrones was never desirable or beneficial: "no man can serve two masters, for either he will hate the one and love the other, or else he will hold to the one and despise the other," and the people of England never took kindly to the dual Kingship. Neither did anyone care for the Duke of Cumberland; he was thoroughly unpopular, and deservedly so; there was nothing in his character to command respect, there was much to justify the almost universal detestation in which he was held. It was a relief and a positive good for the country when he left it and our connection with Hanover was finally severed.

The speech delivered by the Queen, after she had taken the usual oaths binding her to govern the kingdom according to its laws and customs, was as follows:—

"The severe and afflicting loss which the nation has sustained by the death of His Majesty, my beloved uncle, has devolved upon me the duty of administering the government of this empire. This awful responsibility is imposed upon me so suddenly, and at so early a period of my life, that I should feel myself utterly oppressed by the burden were I not sustained by the hope that Divine Providence, which has called me to this work, will give me strength for the performance of it, and that I shall find in the purity of my intentions, and in my zeal for the public welfare, that support and those resources which usually belong to a more mature age and to longer experience. I place my firm reliance upon the wisdom of Parliament, and upon the loyalty and affection of my people. I esteem it also a peculiar advantage that I succeed to a Sovereign whose constant regard for the rights and liberties of his subjects, and whose desire to promote the amelioration of the laws and institutions of the country, have rendered his name the object of general attachment and veneration. Educated in England, under the tender and enlightened care of a most affectionate mother, I have learned from my infancy to respect and love the constitution of my native country. It will be my unceasing study to maintain the Reformed religion as by law established, securing at the same time to all the full enjoyment of religious liberty; and I shall steadily protect the rights, and promote to the utmost of my power the happiness and welfare of all classes of my subjects."

We do not propose to write anything like a consecutive Life of the Queen—that has recently been done in many Jubilee and other volumes, and is foreign to our present purpose. A few notes only in this place will group together some interesting phases in the early part of her wonderful and beneficent reign.

According to usage on the accession of a new Sovereign, Parliament was dissolved, in this instance by the Queen in person, who went to the House of Lords in State, and created a profound impression by her ease, graciousness and competence. Mr. Greville* must come to the rescue in describing the impression made on the occasion, for his pen, though not always to be relied upon in abstruse matters, is admirable for vivid description, and for giving the opinions of the times on public matters. He says:—"All that I hear of the young Queen leads to the conclusion that she will some day play a conspicuous

* Lowe wrote of Greville:—
"For forty years he listened at the door;
He heard some secrets, and invented more."

CORONATION OF QUEEN VICTORIA. *Sir George Hayter.*

part, and that she has a great deal of character. Melbourne thinks highly of her sense, discretion, and good feeling; but what seems to distinguish her above everything, are caution and prudence, the former in a degree which is almost unnatural in one so young, and unpleasing because it suppresses the youthful impulses which are so graceful and attractive. . . . With all her prudence and discretion she has great animal spirits, and enters into the magnificent novelties of her position with the zest and curiosity of a child. . . . The smallness of her stature is quite forgotten in the majesty and gracefulness of her demeanour."

The sum of £385,000 a year was voted as the income of the lady who a few years before had had to leave the purchase of a half-crown box till next quarter-day. But it must be remembered that a very large portion of this great sum of money was for salaries and expenses not under her immediate control.

The Coronation of the Queen did not take place until the 28th of June, 1838. It was a splendid function, which "cost the nation £20,000 more than that of William IV., but £173,000 less than that of his magnificent predecessor." It was characteristic of the Queen, and of the new spirit that was abroad, that for the first time since the reign of Charles II. an opportunity was afforded the people at large to witness the gorgeous pageant, instead of limiting it to a select few, by a public procession through some of the principal streets of the Metropolis. Nothing could exceed the enthusiasm and cordiality of the welcome given to the young Queen, who was greeted with a fervour that augured well for her future. Next to her, the acclamations of the enormous crowds that thronged every inch of space, were given to the Duke of Wellington, who, a few years before, had been one of the most unpopular men in the Kingdom, but had now been received back into public favour; and to Marshal Soult, Duke of Dalmatia, his old antagonist in the Peninsula, who had been sent as Ambassador-Extraordinary to represent the French Government. It was a wise, politic, and generous arrangement, and the enthusiasm with which the white-haired warrior was received created an impression on the people of France which tended more than any other circumstance since the peace, to cause them to forget the resentments of past years.

The Coronation in Westminster Abbey was one of the most brilliant offices ever witnessed. "It was agreed to alter in some respects the ancient ceremonies, and to dispense with the kisses on the left cheek from 'the Lords Spiritual and Temporal' which would have been according to precedent. The old Crown used by George IV. and William IV. weighed seven pounds, and was too large for the Queen's head. So another was made of less than half the weight—a cap of blue velvet with hoops of gold, brilliant with diamonds, pearls, rubies, sapphires, and emeralds. Above it rose a ball covered with small diamonds, surmounted by a Maltese Cross of brilliants, with a splendid sapphire in its centre. In front of the Crown was another Maltese Cross bearing the enormous heart-shaped ruby, once worn by Edward, the Black Prince. But we cannot further particularise the ornaments of this splendid diadem, and will only add that the precious stones of all sizes numbered 2,166, and were worth nearly £113,000. The famous Koh-i-noor had not yet been obtained."*

When the Queen was Enthroned, the Archbishop, on behalf of himself and the other spiritual peers, first knelt and did homage. The Princes of the blood—the Dukes of Sussex and Cambridge—touched the crown of their royal niece, took the oath, kissed her on the left cheek, and retired. Then came the long train of peers—seventeen dukes, twenty-two marquesses, ninety-four earls, twenty viscounts, and ninety-two

* "Queen Victoria," by T. F. Ball.

barons—each in turn touched their Sovereign's crown and knelt and kissed her hand. To one peer, Lord Rolle, the task was a very difficult one. "The large infirm old man," says Miss Martineau, "was held up by two peers, and had nearly reached the

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THE CORONATION

Mr Thompson, in his work on The Procession and Ceremonies observed in the Coronation of the Kings and Queens of England, gives the following account of

KING EDWARD'S CHAIR.

"This chair (commonly called St Edward's chair) is an ancient seat of solid, hard wood, with back and sides of the same, variously passed, in which the kings of Scotland were in former periods constantly crowned; but, having been brought out of the kingdom by King Edward I., in the year 1296, after he had totally overcome John Baliol king of Scots, it has ever since remained in the abbey of Westminster, and has been the royal chair in which the succeeding kings and queens of this realm have been inaugurated. It is in length 6 ft. 7 in., in breadth at the bottom, 38 in., and in depth 24 in.; from the seat to the bottom is 25 in., the breadth of the seat within the sides is 28 in., and the depth 18 in. At 9 inches from the ground is a board, supported at the four corners by as many lions. Between the seat and this board is enclosed a stone, commonly called Jacob's, or the Fatal Marble Stone, which is an oblong, of about 26 in. in length, 13 in. broad, and 11 in. deep; of a reddish colour mixed with some veins of red. History relates that it is the stone whereon the patriarch Jacob laid his head in the plain of Luz. It is also added that it was brought to Brigantia, in the kingdom of Galicia in Spain, in which city the Scottish kings or Scots resided when his throne. Thence it was conveyed into Ireland by Simon Brach, who was king of Scots about 700 years before Christ's time; from thence into Scotland by king Fergus, about 370 years afterwards, and, in the year 850, it was placed in the abbey of Scone, in the shire of Perth, by King Kenneth, who caused it to be enclosed in this wooden chair, and a prophetical verse to be engraved, of which the following is a translation:—

"Should fate not fail where'er this stone is found
The Scots shall conquer and that realm be crown'd.

"This is the more remarkable by its having been fulfilled in the person of King James I., grandfather to the Princess Sophia, electress dowager of Hanover, grandmother to King George II., who was grandfather to his late Majesty [illegible] III. This antique regal [illegible] (together with the golden sceptre and crown of Scotland) were solemnly offered by King Edward I. to St Edward the Confessor, in the year 1297 (from whence it derives its appellation of St. Edward's chair), has ever since been kept in the chapel called by his name, with a tablet affixed to it, whereon several Latin verses are written, on the old Saxon character. The ornaments of this chair consist of crockets and fret-work, richly gilt. It has a cushion, covered with the same materials. The stone mentioned its usual place under the seat of the chair, but is hid from observation by the fringe which surrounds it."

THE REGALIA.

These are—St Edward's Staff—the Spurs—the Sceptre with the Cross—the Pointed Sword of Temporal Justice—the Sword of Mercy—the Sword of State—the Sceptre with the Dove—the Orb—St Edward's Crown—the Paten the Chalice, and the Bible.

St Edward's Staff, in length four feet eleven inches and a half is a sceptre of gold, having a foot of steel about four inches and a quarter in length, with a mound and cross at the top; the ornaments are also of gold, and the diameter in upwards of three-quarters of an inch.

The Spurs, called the great gold en Spurs, are elaborately wrought; they have no rowels but end in an ornamented point.

The Sceptre with the Cross, or Sceptre Royal, is likewise of gold, the handle plain, and the upper part wrought; it is in length four feet seven inches and a quarter, and is of the same thickness as the former. The point at the lower part is encircled with rubies, emeralds, and small diamonds; and the spare of five inches and a half in length next the handle is elegantly embellished with similar precious stones. The top rises into a fleur-de-lis, with six leaves, of which three are split and the other three are hanging down, all enriched with precious stones, out of the fleur-de-lis rises a mound made of an amethyst set round with table-diamonds, and upon the mound a cross, wholly covered with precious stones, and a large table-diamond in the centre.

The Sword of Justice of the Temporality, or Pointed Sword of Temporal Justice, the length of the blade four inches, the pommel an inch and three-quarters, and the cross seven inches and a half, the scabbard in all respects is like the two former.

Curtana, or the Pointless Sword representing the Sword of Mercy, is the principal in dignity of three swords which are borne naked before the kings at the coronation. It is a broad bright sword, of which the length of the blade is thirty-two inches, the breadth almost two inches, the handle, which is covered with fine gold wire in four inches long, and the pommel an inch and three quarters, which, with the cross, is plain steel gilt, the length of the cross is almost eight inches. The scabbard belonging to it is covered with a rich brocaded cloth of tissue, with gilt ornaments.

The sword of state, which is a large two-handed sword, has a splendid scabbard of crimson velvet, decorated with gold pieces of the royal badges, in order as follow:—Up at the point is the orb or mound, then the royal crest of a lion standing on an imperial crown, lower down are a portcullis, harp, thistle, fleur-de-lis, and rose, near the hilt is the portcullis repeated, next are the royal arms and supporters, and, lastly, the harp, thistle &c., as near over again. The other side of the scabbard is exactly the same. The handle and pommel of the sword are embossed with similar devices in silver gilt; and the cross is formed of the royal supporters, the lion and unicorn, having a rose within a laurel between them on one side, and a fleur-de-lis, executed in the same manner, on the other.

The king's sceptre with the dove is a sceptre of gold, in length three feet seven inches, three inches in circumference at the handle, and two inches and a quarter round the top. The pommel is decorated with a circle or fillet of table diamonds and in several places with precious stones of all sorts, and the mound at the top is embellished with a band or fillet of rose-diamonds upon the mount is a small Jerusalem cross, wherein is fixed a dove with wings expanded, as the emblem of mercy.

The orb, mound, or globe is a ball of gold of six inches diameter, encompassed with a band of the same embellished with pieces of diamonds exceeding other precious stones and edged about with pearl. On the top is a very large amethyst of a violet or purple colour, near an inch and a half in height, of an oval form, and which, being encircled with four silver wires, forms exactly the pedestal of a splendid cross of gold of three inches and a quarter in height and three inches in breadth, set very close with diamonds, having in the middle a sapphire on one side, and an emerald on the other. It is also embellished with four large pearls in the angles of the cross near the centre, and three more at the ends of it. The whole height of the orb and cross is eleven inches.

The first and principal diadem denominated St Edward's Crown, with which his Majesty is invested, is so called in commemoration of the ancient one which was kept in Westminster Abbey till the beginning of the great rebellion, when with the rest of the regalia, it was sacrilegiously carried away. It is a very rich imperial crown, embellished with pearls and precious stones of various kinds, as diamonds, rubies, emeralds, and sapphires, with a mound of gold on the top of it, encircled with a band of the same, embellished also with precious stones, and upon the mound a cross of gold decorated in a similar manner, having three very large oval pearls, one at the top of the cross, and two others pendant on the sides of it. This crown is composed, as all those of Europe are, of four crosses and as many fleur-de-lys upon a rim or circle of gold, all embellished with precious stones, from the tops of which crosses arise four circular bars or arches, which meet at the top, and at the intersection is the pedestal, whereon is fixed the mound. The arches within the rim is of purple velvet lined with white taffeta and turned up with ermine, thickly powdered with pearls.

THE AMPULLA AND ANOINTING SPOON

The ampulla, which contains the holy oil, is in the form of an eagle, with the wings expanded, standing on a pedestal, all of curious gold finely chased. The head unscrews at the middle of the neck for the convenience of putting in the oil and, the vessel being entirely hollow, it is poured out into the spoon through the beak of the bird. The weight of the whole is nearly eight or ten ounces, and the cavity of the body is capable of containing about six ounces. The anointing spoon is likewise of pure gold, with four pearls set in the broadest part of handle, the bowl of the spoon is finely chased both within and without, and, by its extreme thinness, appears to be very ancient.

THE CORONATION DAY

BY ALFRED TENNYSON.

All hail Queen Victoria! all hail to this day
So inviting with promise—we welcome it here!
As the bright stream of glory pursues its glad way
And the blessing of thousands ascends at that cheer!

But if thousands on thousands are happy before thee,
Saluting thy heaven, and catching joy's wave,
Oh! think of the millions of hearts this adore thee—
For this day is a JUBILEE over the slave!

No alone o'er the isles—but Hindostan afar,
Doth our jubilee spread—on the West, the poor slave
As he prays for thy mercy, "for Liberty's star!"
"Be the Queen of the FREE, as the Queen of the brave!

Let the African joy, for his freedom is nigh,
Our Queen would no reign but a re happy and free.
Let the Australian—pass banner so high—
The Banner of Glory o'er land and o'er sea!

Bear witness ye Nations! the homage we pay.
The pride that we feel, and the love we declare,
For the Queen of our hearts is, on this happy day
Not alone of the brave—but THE Queen of the fair.

Nor can chivalry boast in the rolls of renown
A scene such as this—for old Time stands apart
While the Crown of her PEOPLE VICTORIA puts on
All radiant with beauty—and pure as her heart!

Then fill up a bumper to honour THE QUEEN!
Our hands and our hearts in devotion we pour,
And our children, while weeping with joy are the scene
Shall pray, God bless VICTORIA! and long may she live

SKETCH OF HER MAJESTY

Her most gracious Majesty is the only daughter of the duke of Kent, the fourth son of George III. and of the duchess of Kent, the sister of Leopold, king of the Belgians. She was born on the 24th of May 1819, and had reached the age (eighteen) required by the law, before she could assume the reins of government, in the month previous to her accession to the throne on the death of William the Reformer, on June 20th, 1837. On the present memorable day her Majesty was crowned, and now reigns over an affectionate and trusting people by all possible legal titles.

Till her accession to the throne her Majesty had a retired life under the care of her mother, who, giving up her native land, secluded herself most assiduously to the education of her child, in order to make her Majesty worthy of the high station to which she was born.

During the short time her Majesty has reigned she has well responded to the "tender and enlightened mother," under whose care, her Majesty said, "I have learned from my infancy to respect and love the constitution of my native country." On her first memorable appearance before the Council on the day of her accession, "stepping from the privacy of domestic life to the discharge of her high functions," she so demeaned herself as to cause general approbation. "She inspired," said Sir Robert Peel, "a confident expectation that she was destined to a reign of happiness for her people and of glory to herself." There is something," he added, "which art cannot make nor lessons teach, and can only be suggested by a high and generous nature." Her Majesty has completely realised the hopes with which her careful education and her demeanour on her accession to the throne inspired all her subjects.

Her Majesty has always willingly met her people, and on both occasions she opened and closed the Parliament in person. One of the most memorable events since her accession was the great festival given to her by the City of London in November last year, which her Majesty honoured with her presence.

All who have had occasion to approach her Majesty speak both of delight at her condescension and affability, and an unswerving object of the royal bounty ever applied to her Majesty in vain.

Of her Majesty's personal appearance we need not speak, as the splendid portrait above gives more information at a glance than we could convey in a column. We may observe, however, that her Majesty is not tall, though she is graceful in her movements.

Her Majesty is said to be a good musician, and to be well versed in modern languages as well as in those sciences, such as botany, which are suitable for an accomplished lady. She has shown herself, since her accession to the throne, a generous patron of the best arts and life arts and has already done much to restore them in England to the splendour of the Elizabethan age. Men of science have not been overlooked, and England promises to be as celebrated under her reign for the peaceful arts as ever it was for warlike deeds under the most renowned of her predecessors.

Her reign has been already distinguished by the establishment of a regular communication by steam with the United States, and the rapid improvements now constantly made in the arts, of which our journal this day presents one splendid specimen, betoken an unprecedented progress in civilisation. For her Majesty's reign to be glorious for herself and happy for her people, her personal resources must correspond with the extraordinary movement now impelled on society. Following a monarch who reigned a comparatively long time, and was a reformer, he task, and the task of her statesmen, it must be admitted, is not easy. But those who well know the discerning head of Providence will probably look on the genius of a female reign as likely to temper most advantageously the character of the monarchy, which, in the age of the world and with the present temper of mankind, might be exposed to much risk were either a heartless debauchee or a wilful tyrant to be on the throne.

royal footstool when he slipped through the hands of his supporters, and rolled over and over down the steps, lying at the bottom coiled up in his robes. He was instantly lifted up, and he tried again and again, amidst shouts of admiration at his valour. The

Queen at length spoke to Lord Melbourne, who stood at her shoulder, and he bowed approval; on which she rose, leaned forward, and held out her hand to the old man, dispensing with his touching the crown. He was not hurt, and his self-quizzing on his misadventure was as brave as his behaviour at the time."*

An incident occurred in the year after the Queen's Coronation which deserves mention here, as it illustrates the self-reliance and strong character of Her Majesty. The Ministry of Lord Melbourne was not popular, and in May (1839) a proposition to set aside for five years the constitution of Jamaica was fatal to it. The measure was hotly opposed; a majority of only five in its favour was a virtual defeat, and in consequence the Ministry resigned.

"THE QUEEN SENT FOR THE DUKE OF WELLINGTON."

The Queen sent for the Duke of Wellington, and he advised her to apply to Sir Robert Peel, on the ground that "the chief difficulties of a Conservative Government would be in the House of Commons." Up to a certain point Sir Robert Peel was successful in his negotiations as regarded the new appointments, and then a series of difficulties arose. He found that in the Royal Household the ladies most closely in attendance upon the Queen were Lady Normanby—the wife of Lord Normanby, who

* Lord Rolle was over eighty years of age. Some facetious person informed a foreigner who was present, and the latter gravely reported it to his own countrymen, that the Lords Rolle held their title on condition of performing this feat at every Coronation!

had been Lord Lieutenant of Ireland under the Whigs—and the sister of Lord Morpeth, the Irish Secretary. It became evident to Sir Robert Peel that he could not proceed with his appointments unless there should be a readjustment of the Royal Household as regarded the ladies in close attendance upon the Queen. If a new Irish policy were to be worked—and the policy of the Conservatives was in direct opposition to that of the Whigs—it could not be done satisfactorily if the wife and the sister of the displaced statesmen remained the confidential companions of the Queen.

It is probable that had this matter been made perfectly clear at the outset, the difficulty, known as the "Bedchamber Question," would not have arisen. As it was, there was a misunderstanding and a complication. While Peel desired a readjustment only as regarded the higher offices, the impression made upon the mind of the Queen was, that the composition of her whole Household was to be changed. It was a saying of the Duke of Wellington, when speaking of the ease and elegance of Lord Melbourne, and his gift of doing things gracefully—"I have no small talk, and Peel has no manners," and it is probable that, in this instance, the mode in which the alterations were proposed may have had some influence on the result.

The Queen wrote to Sir Robert Peel :—

"The Queen having considered the proposal made to her yesterday by Sir Robert Peel, to remove the Ladies of her Bedchamber, cannot consent to a course which she considers to be contrary to usage, and is repugnant to her feelings."

To this communication Sir Robert Peel replied :

"Having had the opportunity, through your Majesty's gracious consideration, of reflecting upon this point, he humbly submits to your Majesty that he is compelled, by a sense of public duty, and of the interests of your Majesty's service, to adhere to the opinion which he ventured to address to your Majesty. He trusts he may be permitted at the same time to express to your Majesty his grateful acknowledgments for the distinction which your Majesty conferred upon him by requiring his advice and assistance in the attempt to form an Administration; and his earnest prayer that whatever arrangements your Majesty may be enabled to make for that purpose, may be most conducive to your Majesty's personal comfort and happiness, and to the promotion of the public welfare."

Thus ended Peel's attempt to form a Ministry, and Lord Melbourne was recalled. He said :—

"I resume office unequivocally, and solely for this reason, that I will not desert my Sovereign in a situation of difficulty and distress, especially when a demand is made upon Her Majesty with which I think she ought not to comply; a demand inconsistent with her personal honour, and which, if acquiesced in, would render her reign liable to all the changes and variations of political parties, and make her domestic life one constant scene of unhappiness and discomfort."

The matter created a great deal of public excitement at the time, many adhering to the opinion that Peel was perfectly right. Lord Brougham maintained that Lord Melbourne "had sacrificed liberal principles and the interests of the country to the private feelings of the Sovereign. "I thought," he said, "that we belonged to a country in which the Government by the Crown and the wisdom of Parliament was everything, and the personal feelings of the Sovereign were absolutely not to be named at the same time."

On the other hand the decision of the Queen met with the warm approval of many, amongst whom was Daniel O'Connell, who, out of the fulness of his heart, exclaimed,

"That young creature of only nineteen, as pure as she is exalted, consulted not her head, but the overflowing feelings of her young heart. Those excellent women, who had been so long attached to her, who had nursed and tended to her wants in her childhood, who had watched over her in her sickness, whose eyes beamed with delight as they saw her increasing daily in beauty and in loveliness, when they were threatened to be forced away from her—her heart told her that she could as well part with that heart itself as with those whom it held so dear!"

QUEEN VICTORIA.

In course of time the excitement cooled down, and in the end the question was settled in a manner satisfactory to all, namely, that on a change of ministry "the Queen would listen to any representation from the incoming Prime Minister as to the composition of her Household, and would arrange for the retirement, of their own accord, of any ladies who were so closely related to the leaders of Opposition as to render their presence inconvenient."

On the 23rd of November, 1839, the Queen held a Privy Council at Buckingham Palace, at which she announced her intention to marry her cousin, Prince Albert of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha.

Greville informs us that "about eighty Privy Councillors were present, the folding doors were thrown open, and the Queen came in, attired in a plain morning gown but wearing a bracelet containing Prince Albert's portrait. She read the declaration in a clear, sonorous, sweet tone of voice, but her hand trembled so excessively that I wonder she was able to read the paper which she held."

On the 16th of January, 1840, Parliament was opened by the Queen in person, and the first paragraph in the Royal Speech made reference to her impending marriage with Prince Albert, which, it was hoped, might be "conducive to the interests of my people, as well as to my own domestic happiness." Sir Robert Peel, in the course of the discussion that followed in the House of Commons, observed that Her Majesty "had the singular good fortune to be able to gratify her private feelings while she performed her public duty, and to obtain the best guarantee for happiness by contracting an alliance founded on affection."

PRINCE ALBERT.

If there be any truth in the saying that the course of true love never did run smooth it was true in the case of the Queen. In the debate on the Address, the Duke of Wellington—of all men in the world—rudely raised the question whether

Prince Albert was or was not a Protestant, and charged the Ministry with having purposely omitted the word "Protestant" for political reasons. He persisted that it was necessary the Prince should be clearly described as a Protestant, and Lord Melbourne ultimately consented to the insertion of the word, though he thought it at the same time, not only unnecessary but even prejudicial. Everybody knew or ought to have known, that he was not only a Protestant, but was descended from the most Protestant family in Europe.

A few days later (Jan. 20th) a Bill for the naturalization of Prince Albert passed through all its stages in the House of Lords. It was intended to insert a clause in this Bill giving the Prince precedence for life "next after Her Majesty in Parliament or elsewhere, as Her Majesty may think proper and fit;" but as the title made no reference to such clause, the further consideration of the subject was adjourned, and ultimately dropped altogether on its being ascertained that the object could be accomplished by "Letters Patent" from the Queen. The Queen admitted that she was most indignant at what occurred, as the impression made on the mind of the young Prince was likely to be a painful one. "But he soon understood the nature of our political parties," she wrote, "and that the proceedings in Parliament were only the result of high party feeling, and were by no means to be taken as marks of personal disrespect, or of want of kind feeling towards himself."

There had been a great deal of absurd nonsense spoken and written about the place that the Prince should take on State occasions. Old-fashioned sticklers wanted to make out that the Queen's uncles, Sussex and Cambridge, were higher in rank than the Queen's husband. But the Prince soon lived down all this trumpery opposition, and the Duke of Wellington said, "Let the Queen put the Prince where she likes, and settle it herself, that is the best way." The Iron Duke's remark was equally to the purpose when Albemarle, Master of the Horse, was tenaciously asserting his right to sit in the Sovereign's coach on State occasions. "The Queen," said Wellington, "can make Lord Albemarle sit at the top of the coach, under the coach, behind the coach, or wherever else Her Majesty pleases."

A week after the unseemly squabble about precedence, the question of settling an annuity on the Prince came before Parliament, and Lord John Russell proposed the sum of £50,000 per annum. Mr. Hume, the economist, in view, it is to be hoped of the badness of the times and not from any other motive, moved to reduce this sum to £21,000, but this was negatived by three hundred and five to thirty-eight votes. Then up rose the blunt, independent, eccentric Colonel Sibthorp (the only man in the House who at that time wore a beard), and moved that the sum originally proposed be reduced to £30,000. This was supported by the Opposition, including Sir Robert Peel, and was carried by 262 to 158 votes.

On the 10th February, 1840, the marriage of the Queen and Prince Albert was celebrated at the Chapel Royal, St. James's. If ever a marriage was made in heaven, this one was. The young couple loved one another with pure hearts fervently, and the Queen might have said, in the words of Elizabeth Barrett:—*

"How do I love thee? Let me count the ways.
I love thee to the depth and breadth and height
My soul can reach, when feeling out of sight
For the ends of Being and ideal Grace.
I love thee to the level of everyday's
Most quiet need, by sun and candlelight.
I love thee freely, as men strive for Right;
I love thee purely, as they turn from Praise.

* Elizabeth Barrett was not married to Robert Browning until September, 1846.

I love thee with the passion put to use
In my old griefs, and with my childhood's faith.
. . . I love thee with the breath,
Smiles, tears, of all my life! and if God choose,
I shall but love thee better after death."

How devotedly the Prince loved the Queen, all his life testified. Never had man a more difficult position to maintain, no one ever sustained his part with more unswerving love and fidelity. Ten years after his marriage the prince defined his position in writing. A proposal was made in 1850 that he should assume the command

THE MARRIAGE OF THE QUEEN AND PRINCE ALBERT.

of the British Army. He wrote to the Duke of Wellington in reply:—"The Queen and myself have thoroughly considered your proposal to join the offices of Adjutant-General and Quartermaster-General into one of a Chief of the Staff, with a view to facilitate the future assumption of the command of the army by myself. . . . The question, whether it will be advisable that I should take the command of the army or not, has been most anxiously weighed by me, and I have come to the conclusion that my decision ought entirely and solely to be guided by the consideration, whether it would interfere with, or assist, my position of Consort of the Sovereign, and the performance of the duties which this position imposes upon me This position is a most peculiar and delicate one. Whilst a female sovereign has a great many disadvantages in comparison

with a king, yet if she is married, and her husband understands and does his duty, her position, on the other hand, has many compensating advantages, and, in the long run, will be found even to be stronger than that of a male sovereign. But this requires that the husband should entirely sink his own individual existence in that of his wife; that he should aim at no power by himself or for himself—should shun all ostentation—assume no separate responsibility before the public, but make his position entirely a part of hers; fill up every gap which, as a woman, she would naturally leave in the exercise of her regal functions; continually and anxiously watch every part of the public business, in order to be able to advise and assist her at any moment in any of the multifarious and difficult questions or duties brought before her, sometimes international, sometimes political, or social, or personal. As the natural head of her family, superintendent of her household, manager of her private affairs, sole confidential adviser in politics, and only assistant in her communications with the officers of Government, he is, besides husband of the Queen, the tutor of the Royal children, the private secretary of the Sovereign, and her permanent minister. . . . . I am afraid, therefore, that I must discard the tempting idea of being placed in command of the British Army."

As "heirs together of the grace of life" they worked in the sweetest harmony, as though she had said to him,

"Beloved! let us love so well
Our work shall still be better for our love,
And still our love be sweeter for our work!
And both commended for the sake of each,
By all true workers and true lovers born."

Of the beauty of the home life of the Queen and Prince Consort all the world knows from the gracious words of Her Majesty in the volumes she has written.* It is a great temptation to quote some of the homely, motherly, but always queenly, thoughts and sayings interspersed throughout the narrative—but we forbear. Nor shall we dwell upon the wisdom, prudence, and tenderness of all her home and social relations. One instance only of the Queen's wise judgment and spiritual insight shall be given here.

Her Majesty exercised extreme care in the choice of those to whom she committed the sacred task of instructing and training her children. The following instructions to the governess of the Princess Royal are worthy to be written in letters of gold:—"I am quite clear that she should have great reverence for God and for religion; but that she should have the feeling of devotion and love which our Heavenly Father encourages His earthly children to have for Him, and not one of fear and trembling; and that thoughts of death and an after-life should not be represented in an alarming and forbidding view; and that she should be made to know as yet no difference of creeds, and not think that she can only pray on her knees, or that those who do not kneel are less fervent or devout in their prayers."

One of the penalties of wearing a crown is that it becomes the target of every crack-brained fanatic or madman to shoot at.

An attempt upon the life of the Queen was made on June the 10th, 1840, by Edward Oxford, a pot-boy of seventeen. There was no political significance in the crime, nor, indeed, in any of the attempts on the life of Her Majesty made by others in the course of a few years following. In the case of Oxford the deed was the result of a craving for notoriety,

* "Leaves from the Journal of our Life in the Highlands from 1848 to 1861."
"More Leaves from the Journal of a Life in the Highlands, 1862 to 1882."

induced by his connection with a so-called secret society, named "Young England," at which amateur highwaymen and assassins—young and foolish like himself—met, armed with swords and loaded pistols and with black crape caps to cover their faces. In certain quarters there was an effort to make political capital out of the affair, but it was clearly proved that there was no wide-spread disaffection. Oxford was treated as a madman and confined in Bedlam; afterwards he was sent to Dartmoor, and in 1882 he was working on his own account as a house painter in Australia.

The next attempt on the life of the Queen was made on the 30th of May, 1842, as she was driving with the Prince down Constitution Hill, and had reached almost the very spot where Oxford committed his crime. The would-be assassin, John Francis, was "a little, swarthy, ill-looking rascal" of twenty-two, who fired a pistol within a few feet

OXFORD'S ATTEMPT ON THE LIFE OF THE QUEEN.

of the carriage, which fortunately was being driven at a very rapid pace. The shot passed by harmlessly—that is, if it passed at all, for there was great uncertainty whether or not the pistol was loaded; Francis was secured by a policeman, brought to trial, and sentenced to death for high treason. Then the mock courage of the lover of notoriety gave way, and he was carried out of court in a swoon. The death sentence was afterwards commuted to transportation for life.

The day after the commutation of the sentence of Francis, namely Sunday the 3rd of July, 1842, a hunchbacked youth, John William Bean, was about to fire a pistol—afterwards found to have been loaded with pieces of tobacco pipe—at the Queen as she was returning from the Chapel Royal by the side of her uncle, King Leopold, when a little lad in the crowd seized it, but was not strong enough to collar the miscreant, who fled and eluded capture. It is recorded that for a fortnight all the poor hunch-backs in London had a "parlous fearsome" time of it. They were hooted at, hustled, and accused in the public streets, and had to be very ready with their *alibis* for that particular Sunday afternoon, and that those only were safe who, like Prince Hal, "were straight enough in their shoulders and cared not who saw their backs."

In view of these repeated attacks, utterly stupid in themselves, it was thought advisable to alter the law which made it necessary to treat these brainless creatures as guilty of "high treason," and a Bill was brought in, and immediately carried, for "the better protection of the Queen's person against minor offences," making such offences punishable by transportation for seven years, the culprit to be whipped publicly or privately as often (not exceeding three times) and in such manner as the Court should direct. Bean was sentenced under this Act to eighteen months' imprisonment in Millbank Penitentiary.

Excellent as this Act was, it did not prevent further outrages, although they occurred with much less frequency, after the crime was shorn of its "glory." In 1849, an Irishman named Hamilton fired at the Queen as she was driving with her children—again on Constitution Hill. As there was no bullet in the pistol the man was merely sentenced to seven years' transportation.

In 1850 the Queen was subjected to another outrage of a different character, but one of the most wanton and cowardly of them all. As she was returning from a visit to her uncle, the Duke of Cambridge, a man of gentlemanly appearance rushed forward and struck her a sharp blow on the face with a small cane. The man, a gentleman by birth and education, had been an officer in the Army, and was, without any doubt, out of his mind. He was sentenced to seven years' imprisonment.

In 1872 another stupid fellow, Arthur O'Connor, an Irish boy of seventeen, conceived the idea in his muddled brain that he could settle the Fenian question, by shooting the Queen, and he tried, but without a bullet and with a toy weapon. Let us hope that the good whipping and twelve months' imprisonment he received helped him to become a man. Last of all, in 1882, when the Queen, accompanied by Princess Beatrice, was entering her carriage at Windsor Station, a poor insane fellow, named Roderick Maclean, fired at her. He was found Not Guilty on the ground of insanity, and was detained during Her Majesty's pleasure.

So ends the catalogue of the deeds of silly boys and helpless lunatics. Happily there was not in one single instance the faintest approach to political significance in these numerous attacks, and the only permanent effect of them was to bring out more strongly the sympathy and attachment of the people to their Sovereign.

As in the course of this work we shall often refer to Her Majesty and her family, we append, for the sake of easy reference, a list of her issue :—

1. VICTORIA, Princess Royal.

Born November 21st, 1840. Married January 25th, 1858, to Frederick, Crown Prince of Prussia, afterwards the German Emperor.

2. ALBERT EDWARD, Prince of Wales.

Born November 9th, 1841. Married March 10th, 1863, to the Princess Alexandra, eldest daughter of the King of Denmark.

3. ALICE MAUD MARY.

Born April 25th, 1843. Married July 1st, 1862, to H.R.H. Louis IV., afterwards Grand Duke of Hesse ; died December 14th, 1878.

4. ALFRED ERNEST ALBERT, Duke of Edinburgh, afterwards Duke of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha. Born August 6th, 1844. Married January 23rd, 1874, to the Grand Duchess Marie of Russia. Died July 30th, 1900.

5. HELENA AUGUSTA VICTORIA.

Born May 25th, 1846. Married July 5th, 1866, to Prince Frederick Christian, C. A. of Schleswig-Holstein.

6. LOUISE CAROLINE ALBERTA.

Born March 18th, 1848. Married March 21st, 1871, to John Marquess of Lorne, afterwards Duke of Argyll.

7. ARTHUR W. P. A., Duke of Connaught.

Born May 1st, 1850. Married March 13th, 1879, to Princess Louise Margaret, daughter of Prince Frederick Charles of Prussia.

8. LEOPOLD, G. D. A. Duke of Albany.

Born April 7th, 1853. Married April 27th, 1882, to Princess Helen, daughter of Prince George of Waldeck. Died March 28th, 1884.

9. BEATRICE MARY VICTORIA FEODORA.

Born April 14th, 1857. Married July 23rd, 1885, to Prince Henry Maurice of Battenberg, who died January 20th, 1896.

FIRST SEAL OF QUEEN VICTORIA.

CHAPTER XXII.

THE QUEEN'S FIRST PARLIAMENT.

THE general election ensuing upon the dissolution of Parliament, made necessary by the accession of a new sovereign, did not materially alter the proportion of the two great parties in the House of Commons; if there was any advantage, it rested with the Tories, We shall not, however, in this place concern ourselves with parties, but endeavour, with the aid of writers of the time, to take a few snap-shots of some of the most prominent men in both Houses of Parliament. Although in the House of Lords there were then, as always, many high sounding and illustrious names, the only men who made a sufficiently conspicuous mark on their times to render their names interesting to the present generation, were Melbourne, Wellington, Brougham and Lyndhurst.

Lord Melbourne, the Prime Minister, was a typical whig, disposed to moderate reform, but as much opposed to the noisy advance of Radicalism as to the policy of the Tories, or, as they were beginning to be called at that time, the Conservatives. The alteration in title is attributed to Mr. John Wilson Croker, who, in the Quarterly Review, referred to "what is called the Tory, but which might with more propriety be called the Conservative party." This new name was subsequently endorsed by Lord John Russell, who said "If that is the name that pleases them, if they say that the old distinction of Whig and Tory should no longer be kept up, I am ready, in opposition to their name of Conservative, to take the name of Reformer, and to stand by that opposition." Sir Robert Peel defined Conservatism when he said "My object for some years past has been to lay the foundation of a great party, which, existing in the House of Commons, and deriving its strength from the popular will, should diminish the risk and deaden the shock of collisions between the two branches of the Legislature."

Lord Melbourne was by no means an ideal statesman, and his popularity was on the wane. He was weak, frivolous, affected, and effeminate in his manners, and if, as some pretend to suppose, he used those artifices to conceal his strength, the reader must decide. Sydney Smith said "If the truth must be told, our viscount is somewhat of an impostor. Everything about him seems to betoken careless desolation; anyone would suppose from his manner that he was playing at chuck-farthing with human happiness; that he was always on the heel of pastime; that he would giggle away the Great Charter, and decide by the method of tee-to-tum whether my lords the bishops should or should not retain their seats in the House of Lords. All this is but the mere vanity of surprising, and making us believe that he can play with kingdoms as other men can with ninepins. I am sorry to hurt any man's feelings, and to brush away the magnificent fabric of levity and gaiety he has reared; but I accuse our Minister of honesty and diligence! I deny that he is careless or rash; he is nothing more than a man of good understanding and good principle, disguised in the eternal and somewhat wearisome affectation of a political *roué*."

One habit of the old time he still retained—he swore like a trooper, and a good story of this habit is told by Sir Herbert Maxwell.* "Mr. Denison (afterwards

* "Sixty years a Queen" by Sir Herbert Maxwell, Bart., M.P.

Speaker, and subsequently Viscount Ossington) spoke to him one day about some points in the Poor Law Bill, then under consideration. Melbourne was just going out for a ride, and referred Denison to his brother George. 'I have been with him,' replied Denison, 'but he damned me, and damned the Bill, and damned the paupers.' 'Well, damn it, what more could he do?' quoth Melbourne, and rode off."

Lord Melbourne's name will always be held in grateful regard for the personal services he rendered to the young Queen when everything was new and fresh to her in public life. "She has really nothing to do with anybody else," said Greville, "Melbourne is at her side at least six hours in the day; and she fretted herself into an illness at the notion of his going out of office. His manner to her is perfect; hers to him is simple and natural. It is become his province to educate, instruct, and form the most interesting mind and character in the world."

Of the Duke of Wellington, who was leader of the Opposition in the House of Lords, we have written sufficiently already. The only two other peers who stand out in contrast to their fellows, and who were the leading debaters in the Queen's first Parliament, were Lord Brougham and Lord Lyndhurst.

Lord Brougham entered Parliament, as Mr. Henry Brougham, in 1810, at the age of thirty-two. He was the Attorney, general adviser, and advocate in Parliament, of Queen Caroline, and brought upon himself the displeasure of the Court and government of that day. He rendered great service in the anti-slavery movement, and in promoting popular education, and to him we owe the London University, and the Society for the Diffusion of Useful Knowledge. At the time of the Queen's accession his popularity was departing, if, indeed, it had not already departed; he had forsaken his early political principles and had practically gone over to the Tories, and the violence of his language, his fierceness and vindictiveness towards his old friends and colleagues, caused him to lose much of the respect in which he had once been held. He hated Lord Melbourne with a perfect hatred, and enjoyed nothing more than to pour out upon him the vials of his wrath; his venomous tongue stabbed poor Lord Durham to death, as we shall see.

Lord Brougham was undoubtedly clever, a splendid speaker, full of physical energy, a gigantic worker, and abounding in high spirits. But he was vain and self-asserting, and his savage temper made him at times intolerable. Miss Martineau tells a good story of him, and it points a moral. "Lord Brougham was at his château at Cannes when the first introduction of the daguerreotype process took place there; and an accomplished neighbour proposed to take a view of the château, with a group of guests in the balcony. The artist explained the necessity of perfect immobility. He only asked that his lordship and friends would keep perfectly still "for five seconds;" and his lordship vehemently promised that he would not stir. He moved about too soon, however; and the consequence was—a blur where Lord Brougham should be; and so stands the daguerreotype view to this hour. There is something mournfully typical in this. In the picture of our century, as taken from the life by history, this very man should have been a central figure; but now, owing to his want of steadfastness, there will be for ever—a blur where Brougham should have been."

Lord Lyndhurst, formerly John Singleton Copley, of American birth, was a man of brilliant abilities, who, from the time he was called to the bar, rose to fame and honour, until he became in turn Solicitor-General, Attorney-General, Master of the Rolls, Chief Baron of Exchequer, and three times Lord Chancellor—a man of whom the bar and the bench were alike proud. He was Tory to the heart's core, and, as has been told,

succeeded in throwing out the Reform Bill on the celebrated 7th day of May, 1832. This made him for a time one of the most unpopular men in England, but he had a profound contempt for popular opinion, and bore his evil fame with so much equanimity that he was called "the man with the brow of brass." Whatever view may be taken of his political opinions and the manner in which he expressed them, there can be no doubt that he was the ablest lawyer in the country, one of the most hard-working of men, and, even to old age, "the handsomest of Lord Chancellors; and a prince of debaters."

If the men of mark in the House of Lords were few, their numbers in the House of Commons were overwhelming. We think it will interest our readers if we insert here a few extracts from the pen of a writer of that time, who gives his opinions and forecasts with great candour. They are highly amusing read in the light of to-day, and that is our apology for the length of the extracts.*

"Mr. Thomas Macaulay, the late member for Leeds, and now a member of Council in India, could boast of a brilliant, if not a very long Parliamentary career. He was one of those men who at once raised himself to the first rank in the Senate. His maiden speech electrified the House, and called forth the highest compliments to the speaker from men of all parties. He was careful to preserve the laurels he had thus so easily and suddenly won. He was a man of shrewd mind, and knew that if he spoke often, the probability was he would not speak so well; and that consequently there could be no more likely means of lowering him from the elevated station to which he had raised himself, than frequently addressing the House.

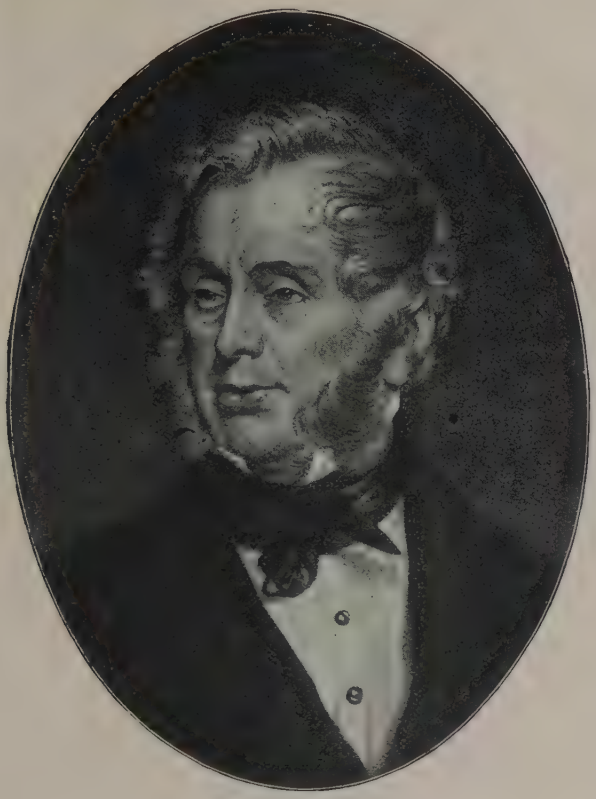
"His speeches were always most carefully studied, and committed to memory, exactly as he delivered them, beforehand. He bestowed a world of labour on their preparation; and certainly, never was labour bestowed to more purpose. In every sentence you saw the man of genius—the profound scholar—the deep thinker—the close and powerful reasoner. You scarcely knew which most to admire—the beauty of his ideas, or of the language in which they were clothed.

"Lord John Russell is one of the worst speakers in the House, and but for his excellent private character, his family connections, and his consequent influence in the political world, would not be tolerated. There are many far better speakers, who, notwithstanding their innumerable efforts to catch the Speaker's eye in the course of important debates, hardly ever succeed, or, if they do, are generally put down by the clamour of honourable members. His voice is weak and his enunciation very imperfect. He speaks in general in so low a tone as to be inaudible to more than one-half of the House. His style is often in bad taste, and he stammers and stutters at every fourth or fifth sentence. When he is audible he is always clear; there is no mistaking his meaning. Generally his speeches are feeble in matter as well as manner; but on some great occasions I have known him make very able speeches, more distinguished, however, for the clear and forcible way in which he put the arguments which would most naturally suggest themselves to a reflecting mind, than for any striking or comprehensive views of the subject.

"Of Lord Palmerston, Foreign Secretary, and member for Tiverton, I have but little to say. The situation he fills in the Cabinet gives him a certain degree of prominence in the eyes of the country, which he certainly does not possess in Parliament. His talents are by no means of a high order. He is very irregular in his attendance on his Parliamentary duties, and, when in the House, is by no means active in defence

* "Random Recollections of the Lords and Commons, 1838," by James Grant.
Mr. Grant was then on the staff of the *Morning Advertiser*—from 1850 to 1871 he was editor of that paper.

either of his principles or his friends. Scarcely anything calls him up except a regular attack on himself, or on the way in which the department of the public service with which he is entrusted is administered. In person, Lord Palmerston is tall and handsome. His face is round, and is of a darkish hue. His hair is black, and always exhibits proof of the skill and attention of the *perruquier*. His clothes are in the extreme of fashion. He is very vain of his personal appearance, and is generally supposed to devote more of his time in sacrificing to the Graces than is consistent with the duties of a person who has so much to do with the destinies of Europe. Hence it is that the "Times" newspaper has fastened on him the *sobriquet* of Cupid.



VISCOUNT PALMERSTON.

"Mr. O'Connell is a man of the highest order of genius. There is not a member in the House who, in this respect, can for a moment be put in comparison with him. You see the greatness of his genius in almost every sentence he utters. There are others—Sir Robert Peel, for example—who have much more tact and greater dexterity in debate; but in point of genius none approach to him. It ever and anon bursts forth with a brilliancy and effect which are quite overwhelming. You have not well recovered from the overpowering surprise and admiration caused by one of his brilliant effusions, when another flashes upon you and produces the same effect. You have no time, nor are you in a condition, to weigh the force of his arguments; you are taken captive wherever the speaker chooses to lead you from beginning to end.

"One of the most extraordinary attributes in Mr. O'Connell's oratory is the ease and facility with which he can make a transition from one topic to another. 'From grave to gay, from lively to severe,' never costs him an effort. He seems, indeed, to be himself insensible of the transition. I have seen him begin his speech by alluding to topics of an affecting nature, in such a manner as to excite the deepest sympathy towards the sufferers in the mind of the most unfeeling person present. I have seen, in other words—I speak with regard to particular instances—the tear literally glistening in the eyes of men altogether unused to the melting mood, and in a moment afterwards, by a transition from the grave to the humorous, I have seen the whole audience convulsed with laughter. On the other hand, I have often heard him commence his speech in a strain of most exquisite humour, and by a sudden transition to deep pathos, produce the

stillness of death in a place in which, but one moment before, the air was rent with shouts of laughter. His mastery over the passions is the most perfect I ever witnessed, and his oratory tells with the same effect whether he addresses the "first assembly of gentlemen in the world" or the ragged and ignorant rabble of Dublin.

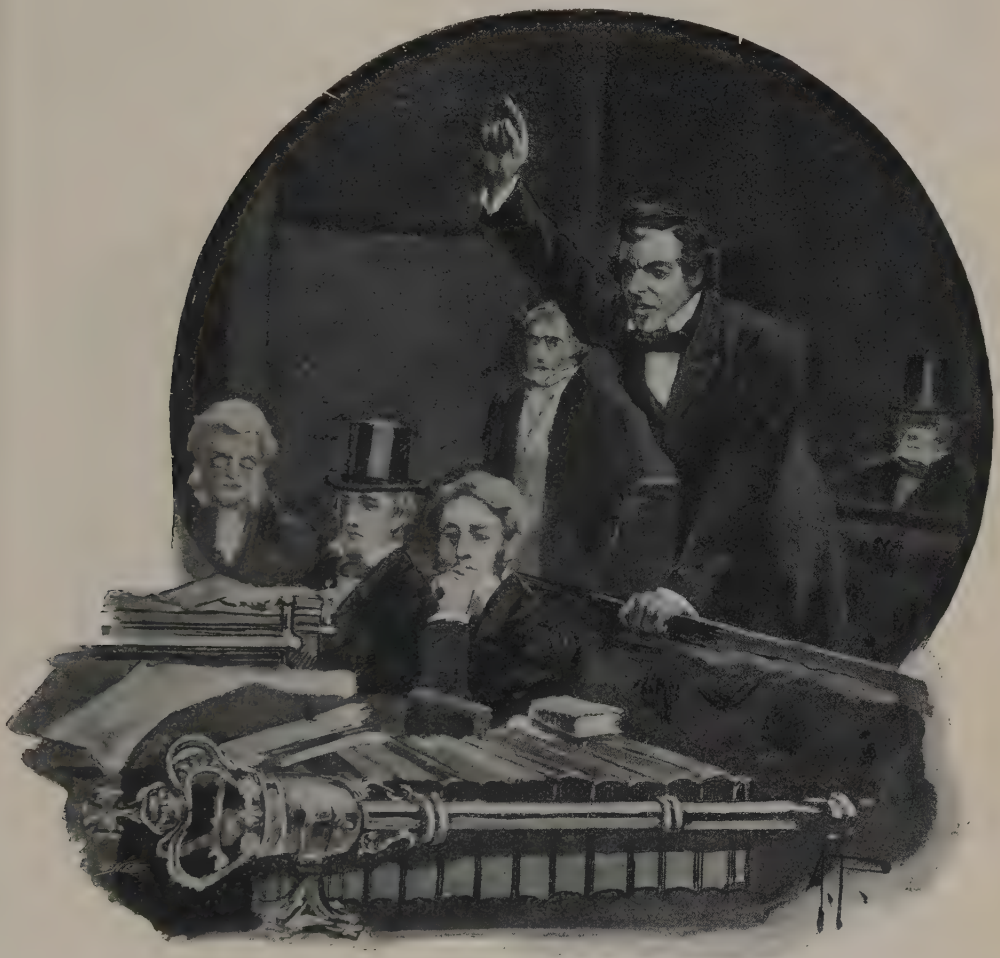
"The most distinguished literary man in the House is Mr. E. L. Bulwer, member for Lincoln, and author of 'Pelham,' 'Eugene Aram,' &c. He does not speak often. When he does, his speeches are not only previously turned over with great care in his mind, but are written out at full length, and committed carefully to memory. He is a great patron of the tailor, and he is always dressed in the extreme of fashion. His manner of speaking is very affected; the management of his voice is especially so. But for this he would be a pleasant speaker. His voice, though weak, is agreeable, and he speaks with considerable fluency. His speeches are usually argumentative. You see at once that he is a person of great intellectual acquirements.

"Mr. D'Israeli, the member for Maidstone, is perhaps the best known among the new members who have made their *débuts*. As stated in my 'Sketches in London,' his own private friends looked forward to his introduction into the House of Commons as a circumstance which would be immediately followed by his obtaining for himself an oratorical reputation equal to that enjoyed by the most popular speakers in that assembly. They thought he would produce an extraordinary sensation, both in the House and in the country, by the power and splendour of his eloquence. But the result differed from the anticipation. When he rose, which he did immediately after Mr. O'Connell had concluded his speech, all eyes were fixed on him, and all ears were open to listen to his eloquence; but before he had proceeded far, he furnished a striking illustration of the hazard that attends on highly wrought expectations. After the first few minutes he met with every possible manifestation of opposition and ridicule from the Ministerial benches, and was, on the other hand, cheered in the loudest and most earnest manner by his Tory friends; and it is particularly deserving of mention, that even Sir Robert Peel, who very rarely cheers any honourable gentleman, not even the most able and accomplished speakers of his own party, greeted Mr. D'Israeli's speech with a prodigality of applause which must have been severely trying to the worthy baronet's lungs. At one time, in consequence of the extraordinary interruptions he met with, Mr. D'Israeli intimated his willingness to resume his seat, if the House wished him to do so. He proceeded, however, for a short time longer, but was still assailed by groans and under-growls in all their varieties; the uproar. indeed, often became so great as completely to drown his voice.

"At last, losing all temper, which until now he had preserved in a wonderful manner, he paused in the midst of a sentence, and, looking the Liberals indignantly in the face, raised his hands, and, opening his mouth as wide as its dimensions would permit, said, in remarkably loud and almost terrific tones—'Though I sit down now, *the time will come when you will hear me.*' Mr. D'Israeli then sat down amidst the loudest uproar.

"The exhibition altogether was a most extraordinary one. Mr. D'Israeli's appearance and manner were very singular. His dress also was peculiar; it had much of a theatrical aspect. His black hair was long and flowing, and he had a most ample crop of it. His gesture was abundant; he often appeared as if trying with what celerity he could move his body from one side to another, and throw his hands out and draw them in again. At other times he flourished one hand before his face, and then the other. His voice, too. is of a very unusual kind; it is powerful, and had every justice

done to it in the way of exercise; but there is something peculiar in it which I am at a loss to characterise. His utterance was rapid, and he never seemed at a loss for words. On the whole, and notwithstanding the result of his first attempt, I am convinced he is a man who possesses many of the requisites of a good debater. That he is a man of great literary talent, few will dispute.

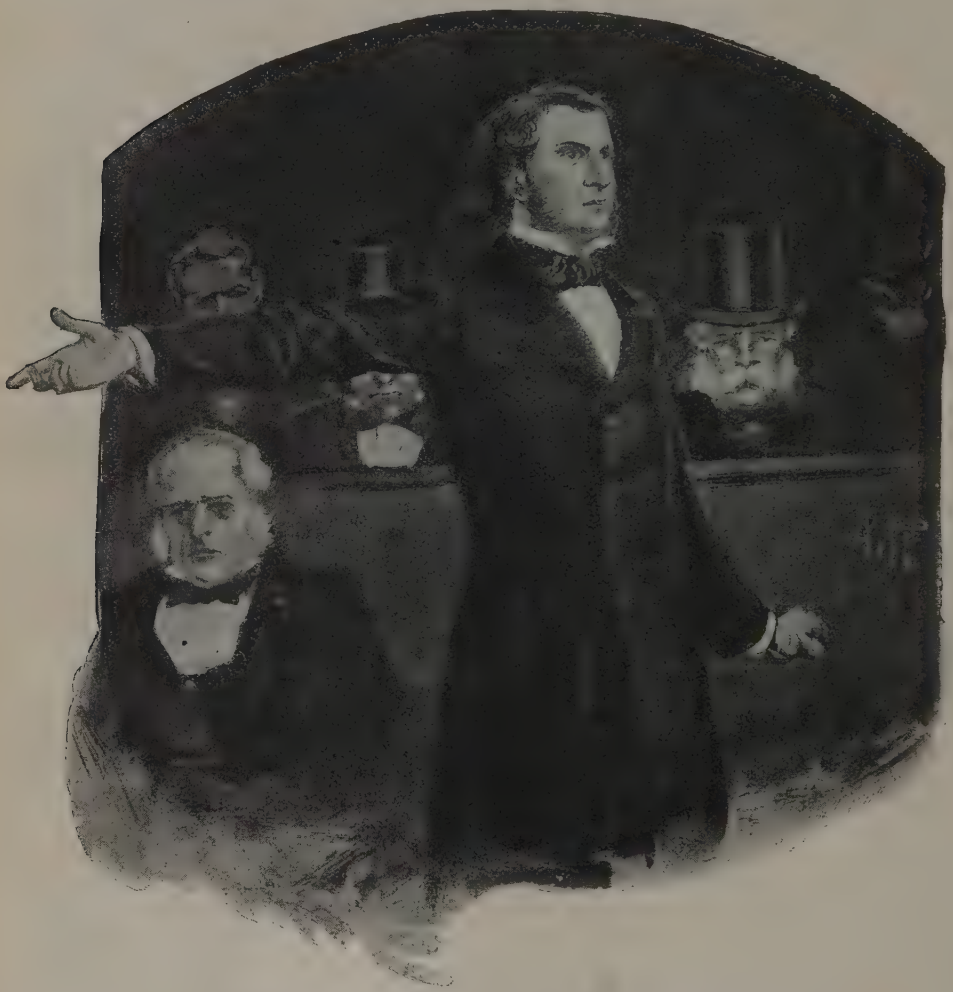


"THE TIME WILL COME WHEN YOU WILL HEAR ME."—*D'Israeli.*

"Mr. Gladstone, the member for Newark, is one of the most rising young men on the Tory side of the House. His party expect great things from him; and certainly, when it is remembered that his age is only twenty-five,* the success of the Parliamentary efforts he has already made justifies their expectations. He is well informed on most of the subjects which usually occupy the attention of the Legislature, and he is happy in turning his information to a good account. He is ready, on all occasions which he deems fitting ones, with a speech in favour of the policy advocated by the party with whom he acts. His extemporaneous resources are ample. Few men in the House can improvisate better. It does not appear to cost him an effort to speak. He is a man of

* Incorrect, Mr. Gladstone was born in 1809, and was therefore twenty-nine.

very considerable talent, but has nothing approaching to genius. His abilities are much more the result of an excellent education, and of mature study, than of any prodigality on the part of Nature in the distribution of mental gifts. I have no idea that he will ever acquire the reputation of a great statesman. His views are not sufficiently profound or enlarged for that; his celebrity in the House of Commons will chiefly depend on his readiness and dexterity as a debater, in conjunction with the excellence of his elocution, and the gracefulness of his manner when speaking. His style is polished, but has no appearance of the effect of previous preparation He displays considerable acuteness in replying to an opponent; he is quick in his perception of anything vulnerable in the



"THE ABLEST SPEECH HE EVER MADE IN THE HOUSE."

speech to which he replies, and happy in laying the weak point bare to the gaze of the House. He now and then indulges in sarcasm, which is, in most cases, very felicitous. He is plausible even when most in error. When it suits himself or his party, he can apply himself with the strictest closeness to the real point at issue; when to evade that point is deemed most politic, no man can wander from it more widely.

"The ablest speech he ever made in the House, and by far the ablest on the same side of the question, was when opposing, on the 30th of March last, Sir George Strickland's motion for the abolition of the negro apprenticeship system on the 1st of August next. Mr. Gladstone, I should here observe, is himself an extensive West India Planter.

"Mr. Gladstone's appearance and manners are much in his favour. He is a fine-looking man. He is about the usual height, and of good figure. His countenance is mild and pleasant, and has a highly intellectual expression. His eyes are clear and quick. His eyebrows are dark and rather prominent. There is not a dandy in the House but envies what Truefitt would call his "fine head of jet-black hair." It is always carefully parted from the crown downwards to his brow, where it is tastefully shaded. His features are small and regular, and his complexion must be a very unworthy witness, if he does not possess an abundant stock of health."

In addition to the members thus described by Mr. Grant, there were many others who were to exercise a great power and influence, not only then, but at later times. We can only briefly record some of the most prominent names. There was Lord Stanley (afterwards fourteenth Earl of Derby), the "Rupert of Debate;"* Sir Robert Peel (Orange Peel, as he was called when he was Chief Secretary for Ireland, and the Catholic question was all-absorbing); Sir Francis Burdett, Sir John Cam Hobhouse, Joseph Hume, George Grote, the historian of Greece, "Tom" Duncombe, and Mr. Roebuck, a bold and unsparing orator as his nickname of "Tear-'em" implied.

With these and other members of the Queen's first parliament, we shall come in contact in the course of this narrative.

* A term applied to him by Sir Edward Bulwer Lytton in the "New Timon," in connection with his parliamentary war with O'Connell:—

"One after one the lords of time advance,
Here Stanley meets—how Stanley scorns the glance!—
The brilliant chief, irregularly great,
Frank, haughty, rash—the Rupert of Debate."

THE RUPERT OF DEBATE.
1842.

CHAPTER XXIII.

CANADA.

CANADA, the greatest of our colonial possessions—its area being not much less than that of Europe—was the cause of much anxiety in the early years of the Queen's reign, owing to its political discontent. A large portion of the population, of French origin and democratic in principle, was instigated by violent demagogues, leagued with others in this country, to insist on demands equally inconsistent with monarchical government and British supremacy, and during that period rebellion was apprehended.

In 1791 Canada was divided by an Act of the Imperial Parliament into two provinces, Upper Canada (Ontario) and Lower Canada (Quebec); each province having its own governor, an Executive Council—corresponding in a faint degree to a Privy Council—a Legislative Council, the members of which were appointed by the Crown for life, and a Representative Assembly. Lower Canada was inhabited chiefly by people of French descent, maintaining the traditions, manners and customs of France before the Revolution, retaining its seigneurial tenure, and French law in civil cases, and having the free exercise of the Roman Catholic religion guaranteed The province was dull, sleepy, unprogressive, and would have remained idling, sleeping and unaspiring to the end of time but for the restless activity of its neighbours.

SETTLER'S HUT.

Upper Canada was inhabited almost entirely by the British, and especially by Scotsmen and Ulstermen; British law and freehold tenure were in vogue together with British manners, customs, and institutions with strong Protestant and progressive principles. The elements of discord between the two provinces were therefore complete.

"At that time the total population of British North America did not exceed a quarter of a million souls, of whom at least a hundred and forty thousand lived on the banks of the St. Lawrence and its tributary streams, and almost entirely represented the language, institutions, and history of the French régime. In the French province there was also a small British population, consisting of officials, commercial men, and

loyalists who settled for the most part in the Eastern Townships. The population of Upper Canada, about twenty-five thousand, was almost exclusively of loyalist stock—a considerable number having migrated thither from the maritime provinces. Beyond the Detroit River, the limit of English settlement, extended a vast region of wilderness which was trodden only by trappers and Indians."*

With much cavilling and discontent, the Lower province—regarding with envy the progress being made by the energetic Britishers—and the Upper province, sneering at its old world neighbours with their musty traditions, antique legal procedure and incomprehensible laws of land tenure, the years passed without any open rupture. In 1812 when war broke out between Great Britain and America, Canada became the centre of a desperate struggle, among the chief incidents of which were Brock's victory

BROCK'S VICTORY ON QUEENSTOWN HEIGHTS.

over the Americans on the heights of Queenstown, and the battles of Chippewa, Lundy's Lane, and Moravians Town. The effect of this strife, crowned as it was with victories among the most brilliant episodes in Canadian history, was to prove the fidelity of the Canadians to the British Crown, and to stimulate a new spirit of self-reliance among the French as well as the English colonists.

In course of time this influence died away; the old contentions revived, and the spirit of discontent spread more widely and was more intense than before. The greatest difficulty arose in Lower Canada where the people became tired of their system of irresponsible government, and developed a spirit of rebellion.

* "Canada." By J. G. Bourinot, C.M.G., LL.D.; D.C.L.

In August, 1837, an extraordinary session of the Parliament of Lower Canada was opened by the Earl of Gosford, Governor-in-Chief. M. Papineau, Speaker of the Lower House, led the opposition to the Government proposals regarding the application of the revenues of the province. Louis Joseph Papineau was a splendid speaker and a prince of agitators, but he lacked all those qualities of discretion and judgment, which go to the making of a great statesman, and his fiery eloquence and fierce declamation stirred up the people until they became beyond control.

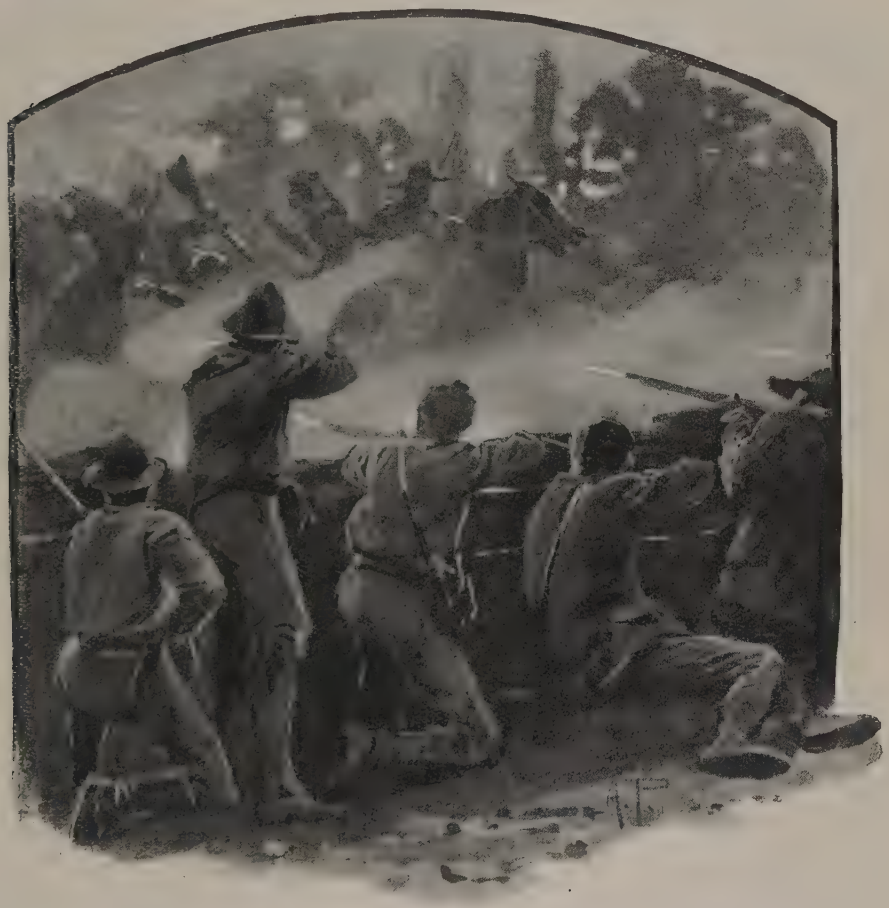
"The Home Government encouraged, and indeed kept up that most odious and dangerous of all instruments for the supposed management of a colony—a 'British party' devoted to the so-called interests of the mother-country, and obedient to the word of command from their masters and patrons at home. The majority in the legislative Council constantly thwarted the resolutions of the vast majority of the popular Assembly." There was, moreover, in Upper Canada an official class which practically held within its control the government of the province. This class became known as the "family compact"—a designation familiar to us in the history of the House of Bourbon; but, seeing that in this case its members had hardly any family connection, there was nothing to justify the title. The bench, the pulpit, the banks, the public offices, were all more or less under the influence of the "compact." The public lands were lavishly parcelled out among themselves and their followers.

The immediate points in dispute in 1837 were, that the Government retained in their service certain officials contrary to the wishes of the Representative Assembly, and insisted on paying their salaries out of colonial funds. The Representative Assembly declined to furnish the supplies, complained of arbitrary infringement of the Constitution, and demanded that the Legislative Council, instead of being nominees of the Crown, should be made elective.

Later, the catalogue of grievances assumed this form:—Arbitrary conduct on the part of Governors; insufficiency of the Legislative Council; illegal appropriation of public money; violent prorogation of the Provincial Parliament; Government connivance at the insolvency of the Receiver-General; and, to the British portion of the community, the additional grievance of being subject to French law and procedure.

When intelligence reached England that the Assembly continued to refuse supplies for the payment of public officials, and of the arrears, which up to that time amounted to nearly one hundred and fifty thousand pounds sterling, "Lord John Russell carried in the English House of Commons a series of resolutions rejecting the demand for an elective legislative council and other changes in the Constitution, and empowering the executive Government to defray the expenses of the public service out of the territorial and casual revenues. This action of the Imperial Government increased the public discontent, and gave an opportunity to Papineau and his followers to declare that no redress of grievances could be obtained except by a resort to arms." This was the signal that had been long expected for the breaking out of rebellion. Lord Gosford had in the meantime written to the Colonial Secretary in these words:—"In consequence of meetings held and about to be held in different parts of the province, I cannot conceal from you my impression that a system of organisation, under the influence and guidance of M. Papineau and a few designing individuals ready to execute his purposes, is at this moment going on. The primary and ostensible object of M. Papineau's plan seems to be to procure a public expression of indignation against the Ministerial measures, and eventually to excite a hostile feeling against the Government, and to establish a Convention, which he expects will overawe the constituted authorities and thus carry

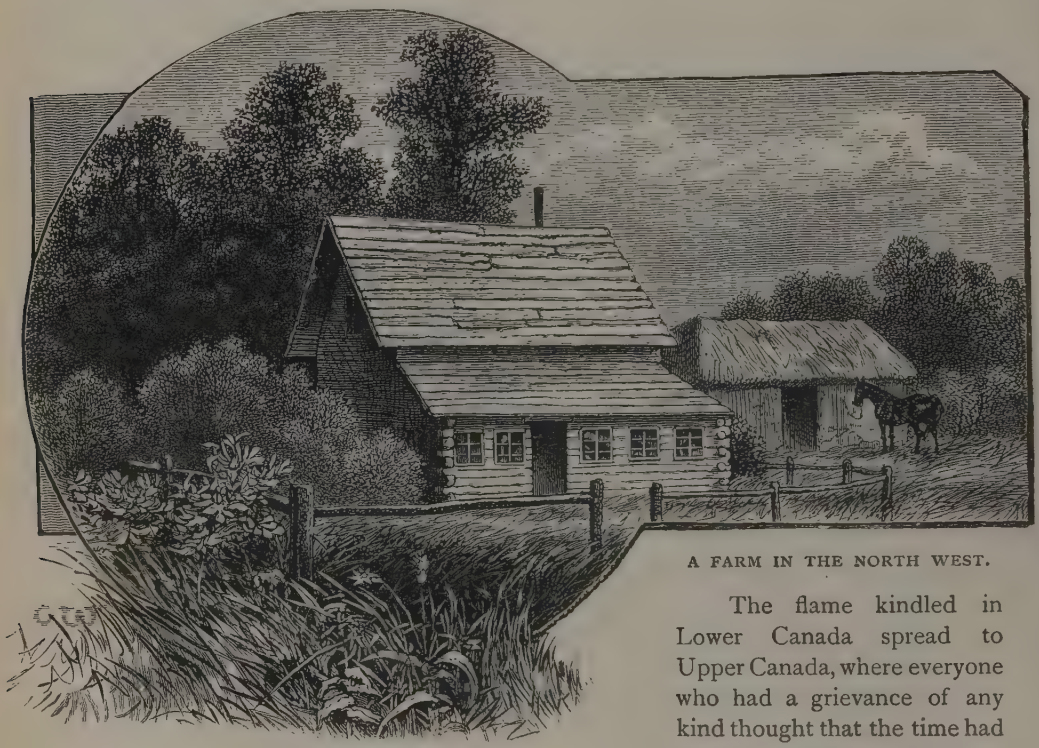
all his destructive views into execution. Under this conviction I am prepared to adopt prompt measures, should they be necessary, to check the evil in its infancy. I contemplate, therefore, issuing a proclamation warning the people against the misrepresentations and machinations of the designing, and exercising the discretion you confided to me by despatching your letter to Sir Colin Campbell with a request for one of the regiments now stationed at Halifax. I must repeat that these steps would not be dictated by the apprehension of any serious commotion, for I have every reason to believe that the mass of the Canadians are loyal and contented; but from the persuasion that the presence of a larger military force in this province might of itself prevent the occurrence of any disturbances by deterring the ill-disposed, securing the wavering, and giving confidence to the timid."



"FIRED UPON THEM FROM BEHIND A BREASTWORK OF FELLED TREES."

Lord Gosford commenced operations by dismissing some militia officers who had taken part in hostile demonstrations, and issuing warrants for the apprehension of a considerable number of members of the popular Assembly on the ground of high treason. With one consent they fled, and a body of volunteer cavalry was despatched to seize them. When returning with their prisoners they were attacked by about three hundred men, armed with rifles, who fired upon them from behind a breastwork of felled

trees. After a short resistance the cavalry fled, leaving their prisoners in the hands of the assailants. Colonel Wetherall thereupon marched against St. Charles, where the Papineau party or "liberty boys" had taken refuge, and, with the assistance of a large body of Canadians, drove them into the woods. This was the commencement of the rebellion, which never assumed any large dimensions in a military sense. Lord Gosford was prompt in his actions; the rebels were not sufficiently prepared for the attempt they were making, and although there was a considerable amount of bloodshed and violence, the rebellion was put down with a strong and firm hand.



A FARM IN THE NORTH WEST.

The flame kindled in Lower Canada spread to Upper Canada, where everyone who had a grievance of any kind thought that the time had come to ventilate it. Some complained of the Governor and the Home Government, others of the monopoly of the "family compact," while others were made disaffected by the inflammatory speeches of William Lyon Mackenzie,* a revolutionary journalist, who led the insurrectionary movement, assisted by American filibusters, of whom a man named Van Ransselaer was the chief.

In Upper Canada the Governor, Major Head—afterwards Sir Francis Head—the well-known author of "Stokers and Pokers," "Bubbles from the Brunnen," and other amusing and valuable works, undertook to put down the rebellion, and his method was that of a hero of romance, or a knight-errant, rather than that of a sober statesman. His first step was to send every regular soldier out of the province to the assistance of Lord Gosford in Lower Canada, and to hand over to the mayor of Toronto a stand of six thousand arms. For himself, he would trust to the loyalty and goodwill of the

* "During one of the Parliamentary debates on the subject, Sir Robert Peel referred to the principal leader of the rebellion in Upper Canada as "a Mr. Mackenzie." Mr. Hume resented this way of speaking of a prominent colonist, and remarked that 'there was a Mr. Mackenzie as there might be a Sir Robert Peel;' and created some amusement by referring to the declarations of Lord Chatham on the American Stamp Act, which he cited as the opinions of 'a Mr. Pitt.'" (Mc. Carthy's History.)

inhabitants of his province to put down all disturbances that might arise, without the intervention of regular troops, and, strong in his belief that the people would not fail him, he allowed the rebels to mature their plans without let or hindrance. Of course, this was a very hazardous, not to say quixotic, proceeding, at an extremely perilous time. Nevertheless, it succeeded. The people, proud of this estimation of their character, and of the confidence reposed in them, enrolled themselves in the militia to the number of ten or twelve thousand, and when Mackenzie and the rebels assembled to show fight, they were routed at the first encounter, and the rebellion in Upper Canada was at once and completely suppressed.

The policy of Major Head was enthusiastically approved by many; but not by the Home Government. They took the commonplace view that the success of the novel plan did not atone for its imprudence, and argued that if the rebellion had been as serious as was apprehended, or if it had been aided by a strong force of "sympathisers" from the United States, or if the inhabitants had turned sulky instead of gallantly

MONTREAL.

responding, the result might have been disastrous in the extreme. Ultimately, Major Head, to the great regret of the colonists, tendered his resignation, which was accepted by the Home Government, as they could place no confidence in a Governor who sent away his troops on the eve of a revolt. Nevertheless, his services were recognised by a baronetcy being conferred upon him. He was succeeded in the Governorship by Colonel Arthur, who had been governor of Van Diemen's Land.

When the news of these further proceedings in Canada reached England Parliament re-assembled before the usual time of meeting, and Lord John Russell obtained leave to bring in a Bill to suspend the Constitution of Lower Canada, and to appoint and send out a Governor-General and High Commissioner for the adjustment of the affairs of the provinces of Lower and Upper Canada. For this arduous post the Earl of Durham, an out-and-out Liberal, was selected. He was a man of character, of remarkable ability, and of great promise, for he was looked to by the Liberal party as the Prime Minister of

a future administration. Men of all shades of political opinion agreed in the wisdom of the appointment, and Lord Durham went forth on his important and delicate mission with the hopes and good wishes of the whole nation.

He arrived in Canada early in 1838. "I found," he wrote in 1839, "two nations warring in the bosom of a single State; I found a struggle, not of principles, but of races." His first step was, of course, to establish order, and when he left England he was clearly under the impression that he was invested with extraordinary and dictatorial powers, and that he was backed up by the good-will of all parties. To his mortification he found out, too late, that the powers, which he understood had been conferred upon him, had been considerably reduced, and that the good-will of the nation was being turned into suspicion through Lord Brougham, a personal and implacable enemy.

There can be no doubt that Lord Durham began his mission in Canada in as arbitrary and dictatorial a manner as was possible. The Act under which he was appointed required that he should be advised by a Council, and that at least five of its members should sign any Ordinance he might issue. Instead of working with the Council already in existence, which had been nominated by his predecessor, Sir J. Colborne, and knew all the details of the real state of Canada, he made his first mistake by organising a fresh Council, consisting for the most part of members of his own suite (among whom were Mr. Charles Buller and Mr. Edward Gibbon Wakefield), all being likely to acquiesce in any measures the High Commissioner might propose.

His next mistake—and it was a fatal one—was to issue an Ordinance dealing with certain persons who had taken part in the rebellion, and had been detained in prison by Sir J. Colborne, pending the arrival of his successor. Some of these prisoners, it should be stated, had been induced to plead guilty The Ordinance decreed that five of the most prominent rebels who had "acknowledged their participation in high treason, and submitted themselves to the pleasure of her Majesty," and sixteen others, among whom were Papineau and Nelson, who had absconded, were ordered to be transported to Bermuda during pleasure. The Ordinance further enacted "That if any of the above-mentioned who have been so condemned, or against whom warrants have been so issued, shall at any time hereafter, except by permission of the Governor-General of her Majesty's provinces on the continent of North America and High Commissioner for the adjustment of certain important questions depending in the provinces of Upper and Lower Canada, or, if there shall be no such Governor-General and High Commissioner, by the permission of the Governor-in-Chief, or Governor, or other person administering the government of this province as hereinafter provided, be found at large, or come within the said province, they or he shall, in such case, be deemed and taken to be guilty of high treason, and shall, on conviction of being so found at large, or coming within the said province, without such permission as aforesaid, suffer death accordingly."

This Ordinance was illegal from beginning to end, and Lord Durham knew it. But in his zeal for the preservation of the integrity of the Empire, he felt it would be useless to bring these prisoners to trial, or to adopt any ordinary legal forms, as no jury, unless packed, would have convicted.

At home, Lord Brougham, glad of his opportunity, called the attention of the House of Lords to the "highly illegal character of the Ordinance issued by Lord Durham," and denounced him in the fiercest and severest manner. "Even with persons, who had committed the crime of rebellion," he said, "they ought to have been brought to trial; they could not be put to death without trial, and without sentence of death in due course of law. Even if the Queen—if the Crown—had in a certain case

commuted the sentence of death to that of banishment, the man returning from banishment could not be put to death. It was only after trial that a man could be ordered to be put to death. The returning from transportation was made a capital felony by Act of Parliament in certain cases ; but here death was ordered without a trial, and without the regular sentence of the law to sanction it. This, however, was going upon the vulgar error, that a man who returned before the period of his banishment had expired could be put to death by any one. There was, then, the case of M. Papineau and one or two others, who had not confessed themselves guilty of any crime, and of men who had been acquitted notwithstanding their confession. Yet Papineau and the others were to be put to death, not confessing anything, and not having been tried. Nothing was more monstrous than this. The Act authorised Lord Durham to make a general law, but not to hang men without the form of law."

QUEBEC.

This speech fell upon eager ears ; Lord Durham had many enemies in both Houses, and, in the end, the Ordinance was disallowed ; he had to proclaim to the colony "that the Ordinance he had issued had been condemned by the Government that had sent him out," and to announce that he had been recalled. The Government cruelly withheld the honours usually paid to a Governor on his departure, and he left for England "a broken-hearted and dying man." The unmerited disgrace, the bitterness of the attack upon him, the mortification arising from the apparent failure of his mission, told upon his sensitive spirit and delicate health, and he came back with death staring him in the face. Meanwhile, his masterly report on the state of Canadian affairs was published, and its recommendations, extending to complete internal self-government and

laying down the foundations of the whole modern system of colonial government, were adopted. But Lord Durham died, worn out and broken-hearted, at the early age of forty-eight, a few days after the passing of the Canada Government Bill.

In 1841 came the re-union of Upper and Lower Canada as one province, with equal representation in the common legislature, and the practical concession on the part of the mother-country of responsible government. Kingston was selected as the new seat of Government, and, three years afterwards, Montreal. In 1848, the Parliament House at Montreal having been burned in a riot, the seat of Government was removed to Toronto and Quebec alternately every four years.

Lord Durham was succeeded by Lord Sydenham—better known as Mr. Poulett Thomson, of Free Trade fame—who died suddenly at Kingston in 1841. Lord Metcalfe was appointed his successor, and, in 1847, Lord Elgin, son-in-law of Lord Durham, was made Governor-General.

"So far from the act of 1840, which united the Canadas, acting unfavourably to the French Canadian people, it gave them eventually a predominance in the councils of the country. French soon again became the official language by an amendment to the Union Act, and the claims providing for equality of representation proved a security when the upper province increased more largely in population than the French Canadian section. The particular measure which the French Canadians had pressed for so many years on the British Government, an elective legislative council, was conceded. When a few years had passed, the Canadian legislature was given full control of taxation, supply, and expenditure, in accordance with English constitutional principles. . . .

"By 1848 the provinces of Canada, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick, and, by 1851, Prince Edward Island, were in the full enjoyment of a system of self-government, which had been so long advocated by their ablest public men; and the results have proved, on the whole, despite the excesses and mistakes of party, eminently favourable to political as well as material development. . . .

"During the quarter of a century that elapsed from 1842 to 1867—the crucial period of national development—an industrious population flowed steadily into the country, the original population became more self-reliant, and pursued their vocations with renewed energy, and confidence increased on all sides in the ability of the provinces to hold their own against the competition of a wonderfully enterprising neighbour. Cities, towns, and villages were built up with a rapidity not exceeded even on the other side of the border. In those days Ontario became the noble province that she now is by virtue of the capacity of her people for self-government, the energy of her industrial classes, the fertility of her soil, and the superiority of her climate. The maritime industry of the lower provinces was developed most encouragingly, and Nova Scotia built up a commercial marine not equalled by that of any New England State." *

* "Canada," by J. G. Bourinot, C.M.G., LL.D., D.C.L.

CHAPTER XXIV.

AGITATIONS.

Chartism: Repeal: Anti-Corn Law League.

THERE was a spirit of discontent prevalent throughout the country during the winter of the year when the Queen ascended the Throne. Times were bad; the winter was of unusual severity, everywhere there was extreme poverty through the enforced idleness of workmen consequent upon poor trade, and there was a great nursing of grievances and ignorant wailing over real and imaginary

"IGNORANT POT-HOUSE POLITICIANS"

wrongs. The Reform Bill had done much, but it fell short of the wishes of the extreme Radicals, who agitated for further and more sweeping reforms The malcontents—the starving unemployed, the ignorant pot-house politicians who did not know the first letters

of the alphabet of political economy, the men, who, having got much, asked at once for more, the unreasoning mob who were willing to be swayed by the first agitator they met—were agog for Manhood Suffrage, in order that they might, by their votes, turn the course of conservative policy and carry everything before them.

In the Parliament of 1838, the question of the adoption of the ballot was raised by Mr. Duncombe, when Lord John Russell expressed his belief that the majority of the people were against fresh changes, or any renewal of the agitating circumstances which preceded the Reform Bill. Only twenty members voted with Mr. Duncombe, of whom six were asked to meet six members of the Working Men's Association to discuss a programme of action. At that meeting a document in the shape of a Parliamentary petition was prepared containing "six points," which were—(1) Universal Suffrage, or the right of voting by every male of twenty-one years of age, now denominated Manhood Suffrage. (2) Vote by Ballot. (3) Annual Parliaments. (4) Abolition of the property qualification for members of Parliament. (5) Members of Parliament to be paid for their services. (6) Equal electoral districts.

At the conclusion of the meeting, Daniel O'Connell rose and handed the petition to the secretary of the Working Men's Association saying, "There Lovett, is your Charter. Agitate for it and never be content with anything else." It was a good name, "charter," it caught on, as the modern phrase is, and henceforth all who supported its principles were dubbed "Chartists." Read in the light of to-day it is not such an unreasonable document as it appeared to the politicians of 1838. Three of its six points have already been conceded and made part of our constitutional system, *i.e.*, the existing franchise is practically Manhood Suffrage; voting by ballot became law in 1872; property qualification, it has been well said, "was extinguished by its own absurdity and viciousness."

The "People's Charter" was submitted to a large public meeting and enthusiastically approved, and the leaders of the movement began to organise. They soon arranged themselves into two kinds; those who were in favour of force were called Physical Force Chartists; those in favour of agitation only, Moral Force Chartists. The leader of the "combined forces" was Feargus O'Connor, an Irish barrister, and once an agent to promote the return to Parliament of followers of O'Connell, with whom he subsequently quarrelled. He was an educated man of herculean frame, a ready writer, a fiery, eloquent speaker, of excellent address and presence, and of profound indiscretion, and he led, and ultimately ruined, the Chartist cause. Associated with him in the forefront of the movement at various periods were Lovett, Heatherington, Henry Vincent, Thomas Cooper, "the poet of Chartism," and Ernest Jones.

Large public meetings were organised in London and in all parts of the country, at which violent speeches were made and violent actions ensued. On the 1st of April, 1839, at a public meeting in Edinburgh to support the Ministry, the Chartists took possession of the platform, ejected the Lord Provost, and passed their own resolutions. On the same day at Devizes, in Wiltshire, Vincent entered the town at the head of about a thousand men, armed with bludgeons, and attempted to address them in the Market Place. In May, the Chartist National Convention, as it was called, removed from London to Birmingham, where they were met by a mob of five thousand persons and conducted through the principal streets to a meeting place where the wild and mischievous proposal was made that what they called "a sacred month" should be observed, during which the working classes throughout the Kingdom were to abstain from every kind of labour "in the hope of compelling the governing classes to concede the Charter." Happily, this scheme fell through.

At some of the meetings language of the most seditious nature was used; at others violence ensued, as at the Bull Ring, Birmingham, where the neighbourhood of the muster-ground presented an appearance which compelled the Duke of Wellington to declare was "worse than that of a city taken by storm." The devices of the agitators

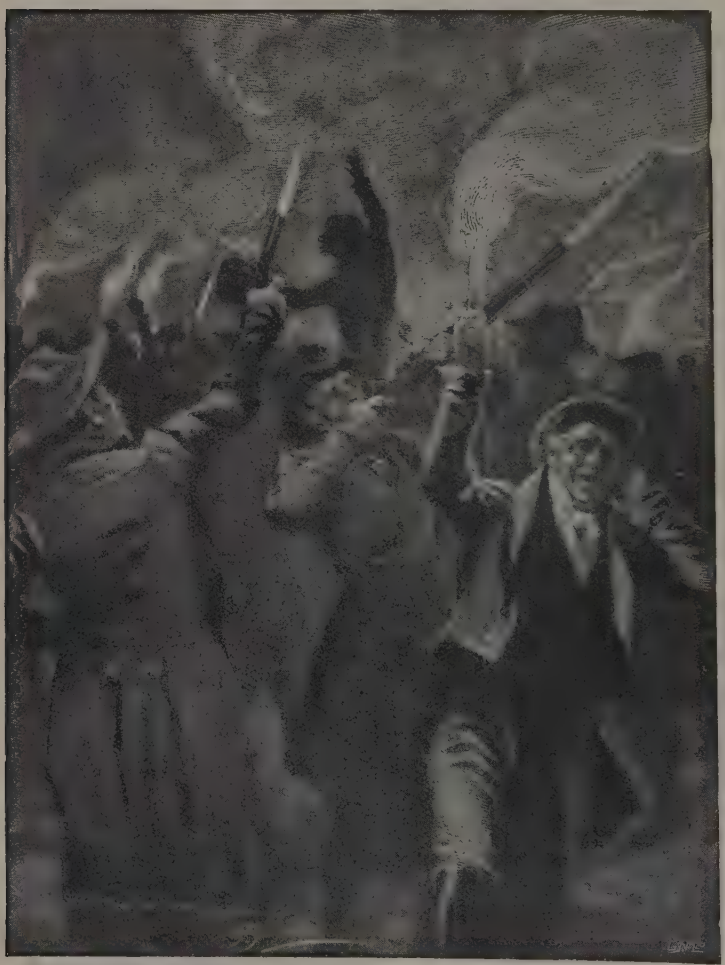
RIOT IN THE BULL RING, BIRMINGHAM.

were very varied. One Sunday afternoon (August 11th, 1839) a body of about five hundred Chartists met in West Smithfield and walked in procession to St. Paul's Cathedral, which they occupied for some time. At Manchester, in conformity with O'Connor's advice, they also took possession of the Cathedral, but left abruptly on the

preacher announcing as his text "My house is the house of prayer, but ye have made it a den of thieves."

There soon sprang up a vast periodical literature to keep alive the agitation; there was first and foremost in importance the *Northern Star*, the property and the organ of Feargus O'Connor; the London *Dispatch;* the Edinburgh *New Scotsman;* the Newcastle *Northern Liberator;* the Birmingham *Journal*, and many others; all of them remarkable more or less for their extreme views and the energetic language in which they were expressed.

The scheme of the "sacred month" having failed, a new terror was organised in the shape of torchlight processions and midnight meetings, to which the agitators went armed. At one meeting a Wesleyan minister, the Rev. J. R. Stephens, of Ashton-under-Lyne, incited the people to a breach of the peace by asking them if they had firearms and were ready: the question was answered by the discharge of a few firearms, but as this did not satisfy him he put the question a second time, when a general discharge took place. For this action he was arrested, and at his trial, where he spoke for five hours in defence, he was sentenced to eighteen months' imprisonment.



TORCHLIGHT MEETING OF ARMED RIOTERS.

At Newport, in Monmouthshire, Henry Vincent was suffering imprisonment, and a serious organised attempt was made, under the leadership of John Frost & Zephaniah Williams, to rescue him. Armed with guns, pistols, swords, crowbars and pick-axes, and sacking the villages through which they passed, the rioters poured into the town twenty thousand strong. They were met by the courageous mayor, Mr. T. Phillips, and a small body of the 45th Foot, and after a sharp conflict were scattered with a loss of ten killed and fifty wounded. The leaders were arrested and brought to trial; Frost, Williams and

another were found guilty of high treason, and were sentenced to death—a sentence which was afterwards commuted to transportation for life. It was determined by the Government to put down the agitation with a strong hand, and some three hundred and eighty persons were apprehended on charges connected with the Chartist movement For a time this appeared to have the desired effect, the inflammatory articles in the periodicals became less violent, and the language of the rioters more restrained Still the agitation went on, and took fresh forms in various places In some it was not so much a political as a social movement, and its advocates were but uttering the cry that was wrung from them by poverty and the hopelessness and despair of the daily life of the poor Stephens, the rough-and-ready Wesleyan preacher, expressed the true idea when he said, "The principle of the People's Charter is the right of every man to have his home, his hearth, and his happiness. The question of universal suffrage is, after all, a knife-and-fork question. It means that every workman has a right to have a good hat and coat, a good roof, a good dinner, no more work than will keep him in health, and as much wages as will keep him in plenty." So the movement drifted away into various forms of socialism, stimulated by the belief that all the suffering that had to be undergone was the direct result of selfish and unjust legislation.

In May, 1842, a petition in favour of the Charter was drawn up, and signed—or rather it was alleged that it was signed—by 3,300,000 persons, and was presented to the House by Mr. Attwood, a veteran reformer. The petition took the form of a large cylinder of parchment about four feet in diameter, which required the services of twelve men to bear it to the table in front of the Speaker.

The petition was a failure; the Commons were not impressed with its size or importance, and gave the Chartists to clearly understand that they would have nothing to expect from Parliament.

We need not follow the movement throughout its course, nor tell how Chartism grew secretly and in the dark until the National Association could boast of its four hundred affiliated societies and forty thousand members; nor how, through the advocacy of the *Northern Star*, a land scheme was proposed and land purchased for settlement, but the scheme fell through by the intervention of O'Brien, Cooper, and other notorious Chartists; nor how, when all other efforts failed, the Chartists, still under the guidance of O'Connor, sought to ruin the Free Trade agitation.

At last, in 1848, the French Revolution stirred all the revolutionary elements throughout Europe, and gave an immediate and enormous impulse to the Chartist movement. Feargus O'Connor had been returned at the General Election of 1847 as member for Nottingham, and his influence had greatly increased. He threw himself into a renewal of the agitation with all the strength and vigour of a madman; a National Convention was summoned, the most violent language was used in order to incite enthusiasts to insurrection, and it was determined that another monster petition should be carried to the House of Commons, to be followed by a procession of half a million persons. The idea got abroad that a revolution would take place in London on the day of the procession of the petition. In various places seditious language had pointed to this: Ernest Jones had cried on Kennington Common, "Never fear the vile men of the law; the police, the troops, sympathise with you. Down with the Ministry! Dissolve the Parliament! The Charter, and no surrender!" while at a meeting of the National Convention, one Vernon, expressed a wish for a collision with the military. "If a few hundreds," he said, "did fall on each side, they would only be the casualties in a mighty movement," and so on.

The agitation culminated on the 10th of April. It had been determined to hold a great demonstration on Kennington Common to show the physical strength of the Chartists. In consequence, special constables, numbering one hundred and seventy thousand, were sworn in to keep the peace; troops were placed in large numbers secretly in the houses of the main thoroughfares; two thousand stands of arms were supplied to the officials of the General Post Office; the Custom House, Bank, Exchange, and other public buildings were similarly equipped; the Admiralty was garrisoned by a body of marines; and on the eventful morning, London assumed a military guise such as it has never worn since. The Tower guns were mounted, and its defences strengthened; sand-bags guarded the Bank of England, which was filled with soldiers and bristled with artillery; all the shipping in the river was in the hands of the police. Traffic was suspended along the streets for fear that the vehicles should be employed. as in France, in the construction of barricades. Finally a proclamation was issued warning people against collecting for disorderly purposes. The military arrangements were placed in the hands of the Duke of Wellington, who paid particular attention to guarding the bridges, the parks, and other open spaces.

"THE DUKE PAID PARTICULAR ATTENTION TO . . . THE PARKS, &C."

Then when the eventful morning dawned, a body of two thousand six hundred Household troops were sent over to Kennington Common and later, one thousand seven hundred belonging to different regiments of the line, and all London waited in anxious and feverish suspense. Meanwhile a quarrel had taken place among the Chartist leaders; Bronterre O'Brien insisted that every man should proceed armed to the demonstration; O'Connor stood out against any warlike display. When the hour came for the procession to start it was found that not more than twenty to thirty thousand people were present, of whom more than half were idlers and onlookers. Grievously disappointed, the orators began to quarrel among themselves as to the order of the procession, and one, Cuffey, declared "The whole Convention is composed of cowardly humbugs!" The procession, as such, was not attempted; it was a mere disorderly rabble and no disturbance of any consequence took place. In a few hours London was quieter than it had been for many weeks

previously, and the whole affair was covered with ridicule. The "monster petition" was found to contain not six million signatures as was alleged, but only 1,975,469, and many of these proved to be fictitious, whole sheets being found to be in the same handwriting, and containing such names as Victoria Rex, Prince Albert, Punch, etc.

Chartism had received its death blow. O'Brien, Vincent, and others endeavoured to revive it, but in vain. Its members fell off in disappointment and allied themselves with reformers of greater moderation, and Feargus O'Connor, who, for ten years had madly spent his force and energy in carrying forward the movement, gave it up in despair. Everything he had touched had proved a failure; from being an object of terror, Chartism had become an object of ridicule, and its failure was so much taken to heart that he soon became an inmate of a lunatic asylum, and never recovered his reason.

Another agitation, which ran contemporaneously with that of Chartism, was carried on at the instigation of Daniel O'Connell. Scarcely had the great boon of Catholic Emancipation been granted than he set on foot his crusade for the Repeal of the Union between Great Britain and Ireland. In 1838 the Government carried several measures relating to the welfare of the sister island. The first was a Poor Law Bill introducing the English system into Ireland with a strict workhouse test—one of the best things possible to check pauperism in a poor country; another measure was the Irish Tithe Bill—a long desired reform—and the Irish Corporation Bill. But these measures, useful as they were, did not touch the real issue for which O'Connell was contending. What he demanded was "that if the Union continued to exist it should be an identification of the two islands of Great Britain and Ireland; that both should have the same rights, the same privileges, the same immunities; that the electoral franchise should be the same, the organisation of the municipal corporations alike—in fact, that there should be one law throughout the British islands. If these points were conceded, he was willing to accept the Legislative Union between the two countries; if these were denied, he was determined to go on agitating for its repeal."

O'Connell was all-powerful in Ireland; he had proved himself capable of holding the country on the verge of rebellion without permitting the law to be broken; his impassioned eloquence was irresistible, and his control over the people, whose passions he roused to white heat, was absolute. He was a power that no Government could resist with impunity.

In 1840 he vigorously renewed the agitation which had been allowed somewhat to slumber, and at a noisy meeting of the Loyal National Association of Ireland, held in Dublin, he unwisely promised repeal within a year. He had compelled the Government to yield Catholic Emancipation, he would compel the Government to repeal the Union. The organ in which he ventilated his views was the *Nation;* the place from which many of his fulminations were uttered was Conciliation Hall, or, in the summer time, at open-air meetings generally in some picturesque spot where the beauty of the scenery gave force and point to the fascination of his oratory.

For a year or two the agitation was pursued with spirit; meeting followed meeting, and each assumed something of the appearance of a military organisation. It may interest the reader to read some extracts from speeches made at these enormous gatherings, showing the style of the oratory and the bitterness of the hostility towards England and English Government. In June, 1843, there was a monster meeting at Kilkenny, at which it was estimated that three hundred thousand men were present, of

whom twelve thousand were horsemen. In the course of a long address O'Connell said:—"The Irish Parliament is not dead; it is only sleeping, and I am here sounding the trumpet of its resurrection." In October, he spoke at the Rath of Mullaghmast, in the county of Kildare, being dressed in the scarlet velvet robe and gold chain which he wore as Lord Mayor of Dublin. "I thought this a fit and becoming spot," he said, "on which to show our unanimity, and on which, in the open day, to evince our determination not to be misled by any treachery. Oh, my friends, I'll keep you free of treachery! There shall be no bargain, no compromise, nothing but *repeal* and a Parliament of our own. Confide in no false hopes till you hear me say 'I'm satisfied!'

THE CROWNING OF O'CONNELL.

And I'll tell you where I'll say that: near the statue of King William on College Green." Towards the close of the meeting the Irish National cap, made of green velvet lined with blue in the form of an old Milesian crown, was placed on O'Connell's head amid the acclamations of the multitude. In replying, the Liberator likened himself to Malachi when he wore the collar of gold "which he won from the proud invader."

Of course, this state of things could not continue for ever, and when a further meeting was announced to take place at Clontarf, near Dublin, the Government interfered and stopped it, and proceeded forthwith to the prosecution of O'Connell and some of his associates on the ground of "conspiracy to raise and excite dissatisfaction among her Majesty's subjects." The trial extended over twenty-four days, and O'Connell was condemned to imprisonment for twelve calendar months, and to be fined the sum of £2,000. Eventually, this judgment was reversed by the House of Lords, and O'Connell and his associates were set at liberty. But his political career was at an end; he was never the same man again; his impotence in the presence of a strong English Government was brought home to him as it had never been before. The Repeal agitation was over, and the Liberator, as he had been prematurely called, grew weary, ill, and depressed. In 1847, his one last aspiration was to end his days in Rome, the "Holy Place" of Catholicism, but he died on his way thither, at the Hotel Feder, in Genoa, on the 15th of May.

During the period of which we have been writing there was still another agitation in progress, differing in every particular from those we have referred to, but for many years monopolising the almost exclusive attention of the people and Parliament—the League for the Repeal of the Corn Laws. The great question, which for some considerable period had cropped up in various forms, was brought forward in the House of Lords by Lord Brougham in 1839, and by Mr. Villiers in the House of Commons, and was shelved. It was not revived as a burning question until February, 1842, when Sir Robert Peel propounded his great scheme relating to the laws which affected the importation of corn and of other articles, the produce of foreign countries. The scheme was a new sliding scale of corn duties, which Mr. Cobden denounced forthwith as an insult to a suffering people, and in no way calculated to relieve their distress.

The Free Trade Movement had its origin in Lancashire, and the famous Anti-Corn Law League was founded for the purpose of creating an agitation which should not cease until all duties on the importation of foreign grain should be abolished.

RICHARD COBDEN.

The chief leaders of the movement were Mr. Villiers, who had for some years brought forward annually a motion for abolition, Mr. Richard Cobden and Mr. John Bright, three of the most remarkable men of modern times. Mr. Richard Cobden, the apostle of Free Trade, had worked his way up in the world from humble circumstances and meagre education until success crowned his labours as a cotton manufacturer in Manchester. From early days his political views had been formed, and they were rigidly adhered to throughout his life. He advocated non-intervention in the disputes of other nations, and maintained it to be the only right object of the foreign policy of England to increase and strengthen her connection with foreign countries in the way of trade and peaceful intercourse. How he became associated with Mr. John Bright in his great Free Trade mission may be best told in Mr. Bright's own words. "In the year 1841 I was at Leamington, and spent several months there. It was near the middle of September there fell upon me one of the heaviest blows that can visit any man. I found myself left there with none living of my house but a motherless child. Mr. Cobden called upon me the day after that event, so terrible to me and so prostrating. He said, after some conversation, 'Don't allow this grief, great as it is, to weigh you down too much; there are at this moment, in thousands of homes in this country, wives and children who are dying of hunger—of hunger made by the law. If you come along with me, we will never rest till we have got rid of the Corn Law.' We saw the colossal injustice which cast its shadow over every part of the nation, and we thought we saw the true remedy and the relief, and that if we united our efforts, as you know we did, with the efforts of hundreds and thousands of good men in various parts of the country, we should be able to bring that remedy home, and to afford that relief to the starving people of this country."* The aim of the League was the total abolition, without any compromise, of the Corn Laws, and the provision of the cheapest food for the masses. Of the agitation that ensued, "it was," says Mr. Molesworth, "an agitation without parallel in the history of the world, for the energy with which it was conducted, the rapid advance it made, and the speedy and complete success that crowned its efforts; for the great change it wrought in the public opinion and the consequent legislation of the country; overcoming prejudice

JOHN BRIGHT.

*Speech at Rochdale.

and passion, dispelling ignorance and conquering powerful interests, with no other weapons than those of reason and that eloquence which great truths and strong convictions inspire."

An Anti-Corn Law *Association* was formed in London so early as 1836, but it soon became evident that the head-quarters of the movement must be laid in Manchester, the centre of the manufacturing districts, and in 1838 the Anti-Corn Law *League* was formed, as a permanent Union, composed of delegates from local associations of all towns and districts represented in the delegation, and as many others as might be influenced to form Anti-Corn Law Associations and to join the League. For six years the meetings of the League were incessant; the demands upon the time of Mr. Cobden were so great that he had to sacrifice his successful business for the sake of the cause he had espoused, and the country, from Land's End to John O'Groats, echoed with his ringing words and those of his great co-adjutor, John Bright.

In 1840, the Free Trade Hall was built as a centre of operations on the field where once the "Peterloo Massacre" had occurred, and here the delegates from all parts of the Kingdom gathered. Meetings were organised, pamphlets were issued, and funds were raised. In 1842, a bazaar was held in the Theatre Royal, Manchester, such as had never been seen before that time, at which £20,000 clear profit was realised in admissions and sales, and £5,000 collected in contributions. On another occasion an appeal was made for a fund of £250,000, and at a meeting in the Town Hall, called for the purpose, £60,000 was subscribed in the room in less than an hour and a half. The meetings of the League in London and elsewhere were attended by enormous crowds, and the greatest enthusiasm prevailed. In 1843, Drury Lane Theatre was engaged for one day of each week in Lent, and later Covent Garden was held for fifty nights at an expense of £3,000; while twelve or fourteen lecturers were entirely engaged in advocating the claims of the League in public halls, and proselytism was carried on by means of a newspaper called

THE "TIMES" ANNOUNCES PROPOSED REPEAL OF THE CORN LAWS.

the *League*, by tracts, placards, "Anti-Corn Wafers," the singing of popular songs, written by one Ebenezer Elliot an enthusiast in the cause, and by itinerant preachers of the gospel of cheap bread. Up to the end of the year 1843, the *Times* newspaper had regarded the influence of the League with suspicion and alarm, but on the 18th of November in that year it altered its tone in these words:—"The League *is a great fact.* It would be foolish, nay rash, to deny its importance. It is a great fact that there should have been created in the homestead of our manufacturers a confederacy devoted to the agitation of one political question, persevering at it year after year, shrinking from no trouble, dismayed by no danger, making light of every obstacle. It demonstrates the hardy strength of purpose, the indomitable will, by which Englishmen working together for a great object are armed and animated. It is a great fact that, at one meeting in Manchester, more than forty manufacturers should subscribe on the spot each at least £100, some £300, some £400, some £500, for the advancement of a measure which, right or wrong, just or unjust, expedient or injurious, they at least believe it their duty, or their interest, or both, to advance in every possible way. These are facts important, and worthy of consideration. No moralist can disregard them, no politician can sneer at them, no statesman can undervalue them. He who collects opinions must chronicle them; he who frames laws must to some extent consult them," and much more to a similar effect.

This article created a strong impression and gave a great impetus to the movement, and the phrase "The League is a great fact," became a catch-word of the day.

It is unnecessary for us to recall in detail the various stages of the success that attended the labours of the League, of the political disturbances it created, or of the complicated phases of public policy through which it passed during the years 1844 and 1845.

In the summer of the latter year there came tremendous rains, continuing throughout August and September, and in the middle of October the fact that there was a great failure in the wheat crops filled the country with alarm.

In the early part of this year, the Peel Administration was standing, apparently, upon the firmest possible foundation, and when Parliament was prorogued on the 9th of August, there was not a cloud in the sky to give warning of the coming storm.

Only two days, however, passed, before Sir James Graham received a letter from a potato dealer, informing him that, from some unaccountable cause, a species of blight, or other form of disease, had fallen upon the potato crop of the country, and that all the potatoes sent to the markets bore indication, more or less, of the disease. The news soon received confirmation. It was found that throughout the whole of Kent and Sussex the disease was prevalent; and, later on, similar reports came from all quarters. In England, where the people—partly owing to the operation of the Poor Law—had not to depend upon the potato for subsistence, the threatened danger was not so alarming as to suggest the idea of famine. But in Ireland, if the disease should spread there—there was no evidence at present that it had done so, the crop being later in its yield there than elsewhere—the result would be disastrous in the extreme, as the vast majority of the working population were entirely dependent upon the potato crop for their existence, and its failure would mean nothing less to them than ruin and starvation.

The Government could not shut their eyes to this terrible contingency, and frequent Cabinet Councils were held. People began to inquire what these could mean, for, as yet, the public in general were ignorant of the approaching danger, and rumours were current that there was a division among the Ministers.

A few weeks sufficed to explain the mystery, and then there was a clamour for the immediate calling together of Parliament, and, on the part of the Anti-Corn Law League, for the ports to be thrown open.

Sir Robert Peel had come into office in 1841 to maintain the Corn Laws, but now, seeing the extent of the danger, his first consideration was the necessity of throwing open the ports to the importation of provisions of every kind. This in itself would have been an easy matter, if it were only to meet the present emergency; the difficulty would be to re-impose restrictions after they had once been relaxed.

Towards the end of October, the news arrived that the distemper was spreading throughout Ireland with frightful rapidity, and on the last day of the month, a Cabinet Council was held at Sir Robert Peel's residence, to deliberate on the alarming prospects of the country. On the following day, he set before the Cabinet his opinion that the Corn Laws could no longer be maintained, that the existing duties should be at once

FAMINE IN IRELAND.

suspended, and the ports thrown open. No definite action, however, was taken at that time; a Commission, consisting of the heads of departments in Ireland, was appointed to take steps to guard against the sudden inroad of famine, and the idea of an autumnal Session was abandoned. Shortly after this, there arose a great cry in Ireland, and the Mansion House Relief Committee of Dublin interpreted it in a series of resolutions which stated that there was undoubtedly approaching, throughout that land, calamitous

famine and pestilence, and concluded by impeaching the conduct of the Ministry, for refusing to open the ports or to call Parliament together earlier than usual.*

On the 22nd of November a letter from Lord John Russell, written from Edinburgh, and addressed to the electors of London, appeared in the daily papers, announcing his unqualified conversion to the principles of the Anti-Corn Law League, and expressing his surprise that, with calamity of an unprecedented nature threatening, Ministers had separated, apparently without having taken any steps to meet the impending scarcity. It concluded in these unmistakable words :—"The Government appear to be waiting for some excuse to give up the present Corn Laws. Let the people by petition, by address, by remonstrance, afford them the excuse they seek. . . . Let the removal of restrictions on the admission of the main articles of food and clothing, used by the mass of the people, be required in plain terms, as useful to all great interests, and indispensable to the progress of the nation."

"SIR ROBERT PEEL TENDERED HIS RESIGNATION."

When the Cabinet re-assembled two days later, it was evident that Sir Robert Peel had resolved either to repeal the Corn Laws or to resign. On the 4th of December it was announced in the *Times*, with all authority, though not using the word itself, that Parliament would meet at an early date, and that the repeal of the Corn Laws would then be proposed by the Ministers.

It is quite impossible now to realise the intensity of the excitement caused by this announcement. How the information found its way into that paper remains to this day a mystery, and it was indignantly denied by the Ministerial press.

* The Life and Work of the Seventh Earl of Shaftesbury, K.G. Vol. II.

Lord Stanley and the Duke of Buccleuch intimated to the Premier that they declined to be parties to any measure involving the ultimate repeal of the Corn Laws, and refused further to retain office; and a feeling having become prevalent that others would do the same, Sir Robert Peel, on the 5th of December, repaired to Osborne and tendered his resignation to Her Majesty.

Lord John Russell was summoned to form a Government, but his arrangements fell to the ground, and before the end of the year Sir Robert Peel was again First Minister of the Crown.

For some weeks previously to the re-assembling of Parliament, public feeling was strained to the uttermost, and the announcements to be made by the restored Minister were awaited with feverish anxiety. But, although it was clear that Sir Robert Peel had become a convert to the Manchester School, and that it was his intention to abandon the Corn Laws he had come into office to maintain, he did not make any definite statement. "I will reserve to myself the unfettered power of judging what will be for the public interest," he said, "I will hold office unshackled by any other obligation than that of consulting the public interest and providing for the public safety"

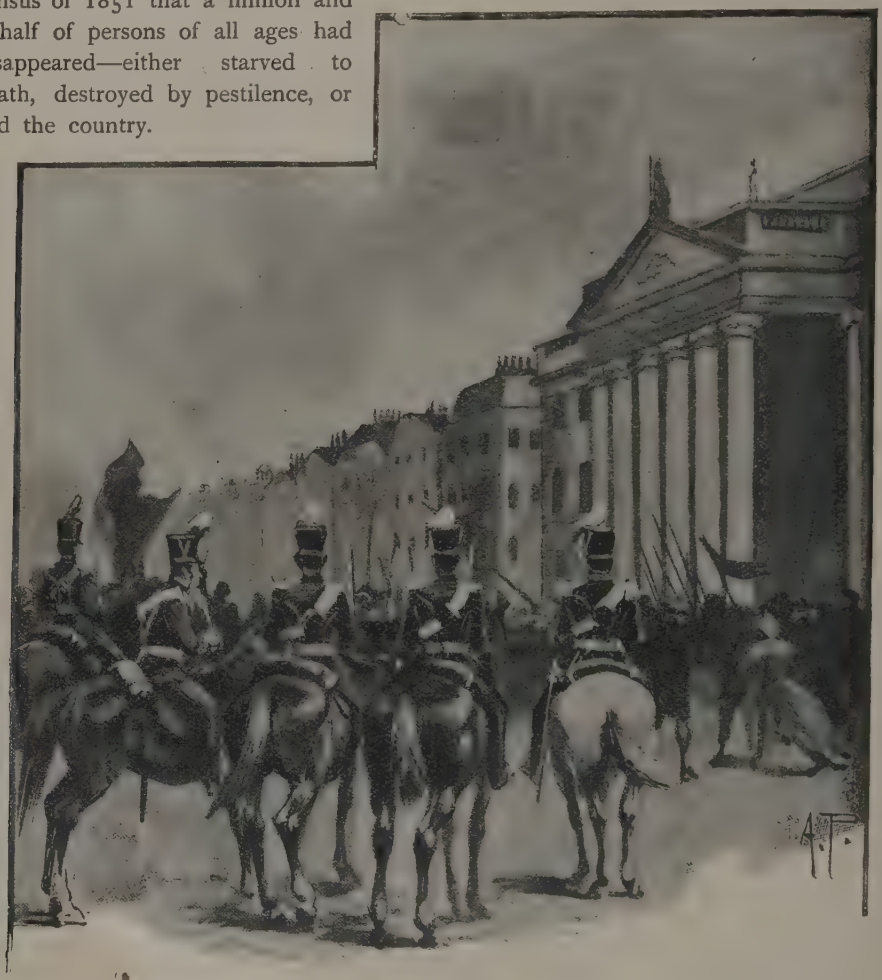
A few days later, however (January 27th) he announced his policy, into the details of which it is not necessary that we should enter here. The important part of the explanation was, that he proclaimed himself "an absolute convert to the Free Trade principle, and that the introduction of the principle into all departments of our commercial legislation was, according to his intention, to be a mere question of time and convenience."

On the 26th of June, 1846, the Bill for the total repeal of the Corn Laws passed the House of Lords, and after that date the revival of a sliding scale or fixed duty on corn was as impossible as an attempt to restore the Stuart prerogative, or a general warrant, or an act to license the press, or a rotten borough, or a restricted franchise would be now. "The result of the Anti-Corn Law Agitation, and the revision of the fiscal system in this country, contained in it the germs of a thorough and a pacific revolution. It was not only a precedent in the assault of untenable positions, but it was a formal notice that every kind of interference with natural liberty, and every grant of a special privilege, however imposing and sacred the privilege might be, was open to challenge, and might be challenged." *

There were many who did not hesitate to declare that the scare produced by the threatened failure of the potato crop in 1845, and the consequent famine, was neither more nor less than a political *coup*. It was, nevertheless, a terrible fact, and Ireland was plunged into unprecedented distress In the autumn of 1846 the disease re-appeared with greater virulence than ever; and in 1847 Ireland was in a state of absolute famine. It is impossible to describe the terrible condition of that unhappy country; tens of thousands were threatened with actual starvation, and thousands more were suffering from disease consequent upon insufficient food. Then it was seen that the repeal of the Corn Laws was a stroke of the wisest policy; the ports had not been thrown open one day too soon, nor had the intimation to countries from whence grain could be imported been given an hour too early. The descriptions in the daily Press were of the most harrowing kind, and the whole world was horrified by the shocking details, to which there is, happily, nothing similar on record in the annals of this country. The food of the people was gone; and although every effort was made to bring supplies into the country, these were altogether inadequate. Subscriptions were set on foot, work was

* "Cobden and Modern Political Opinion," J. E. Thorold Rogers.

improvised for the unemployed; but, notwithstanding this, the people died in hundreds daily from dysentery, famine, fever, and starvation. Never before had there been such universal sympathy with suffering—all the nations vied with one another in sending contributions towards the relief of the distress—and never before had any country in civilised lands and times been dependent for existence upon one poor article of food. Despite all the efforts that were made, "there was not a house where there was not one dead." It was ascertained by the census of 1851 that a million and a half of persons of all ages had disappeared—either starved to death, destroyed by pestilence, or fled the country.



SACKVILLE STREET DURING THE RIOTS.

Of course, it could not be expected that the agricultural interest would easily forgive Peel for having, as they thought, betrayed them. Invective was hurled against him from all quarters, and a sentence or two from a speech by Mr. Disraeli, who was then just beginning to put forth his power in political life, may be taken as a specimen of many others. "My conception of a great Statesman," he said, "is of one who represents a great idea; an idea which may lead him to power; an idea with which he may identify himself; an idea which he may develop; an idea which he may and can impress on the mind and conscience of a nation; that, Sir, is my idea of what makes a man a

great statesman. I do not care whether he is a manufacturer or a manufacturer's son. That is a grand, that is indeed a heroic position. But I care not what may be the position of a man who never originates an idea—a watcher of the atmosphere—a man, who, as he says, takes his observations, and when he finds the wind in a certain quarter, trims his sails to suit it. Such a man may be a powerful minister, but he is no more a great statesman than a man who gets up behind a carriage is a great whip."

It was not long before the Protectionists had their revenge. In consequence of continued rioting in Ireland, Peel had felt constrained to introduce an Irish Coercion Bill, and it met with the fiercest opposition. Only two hundred and nineteen votes were given for its second reading against two hundred and ninety-two, or a majority of seventy-three against the Government. The fall of Peel came in the very hour of his great triumph, for on the evening of his defeat, the Corn Bill passed the Lords!

In announcing his resignation, Peel generously said "The name which ought to be, and which will be, associated with the success of these measures, is the name of the man who, acting, I believe, from pure and disinterested motives, has advocated their cause with untiring energy and by appeals to reason, enforced by an eloquence the more to be desired because it is unaffected and unadorned, is the name of Richard Cobden."

He concluded his famous speech in these words:—"It may be that I shall leave a name sometimes remembered with expressions of goodwill in those places which are the abode of men whose lot it is to labour and to earn their daily bread by the sweat of their brow—a name remembered with expressions of goodwill when they shall recreate their exhausted strength with abundant and untaxed food, the sweeter because it is no longer leavened with a sense of injustice."

From "Punch." *R. Doyle.*

A MEETING TO DISCUSS THE PRINCIPLES OF PROTECTION AND FREE TRADE.

CHAPTER XXV.

STEAMSHIPS, RAILWAYS, AND TELEGRAPHS.

THE practical application of the three most marvellous inventions, not only in the history of the century, but in the history of the civilised world, were very nearly coincident with the beginning of the reign of Queen Victoria. In all previous ages, men or animals were the only agents employed in travelling or in conveying goods on land; throughout all past history, until the commencement of

AN OLD-FASHIONED WOODEN MAN OF WAR.

the nineteenth century, the horse and the bullock, the chariot, cart, or coach were the chief means used for the conveyance of persons and goods, and in the nature of things the speed attained for long journeys could not have exceeded an average of from eight

to ten miles an hour. On sea, sailing vessels—developed, it is true, from the crudest forms until they culminated in magnificent ships, for the purposes of commerce and war—and rowing boats, were the uncertain means of ocean and river navigation. The introduction of steam, the invention of the railroad and steam locomotive, and of steam propulsion for vessels, brought about a complete revolution, and changed the whole system of human locomotion and the conveyance and distribution of goods.

We have already given an account of the earliest applications of steam to railways and to shipping,* and we will now trace their further development.

In December, 1835, Dr. Lardner, in a lecture delivered at Liverpool, said: "As to the project which is announced in the newspapers of making the voyage directly from New York to Liverpool by steam, it is, I have no hesitation in saying, perfectly chimerical, and they may as well talk of making a voyage from New York or Liverpool to the moon!" It seemed to him as wild a notion as one, propounded five years before, had appeared to others, namely, that the ribs of a ship should be made of iron instead of timber. "What nonsense it is," people were heard to exclaim, "as if anybody ever knew iron to float!" or as the chief naval architect of one of our dockyards said to Mr. Scott Russell, "Don't talk to me about iron ships; it's *contrary to nature!*"†

The practicability of steam navigation to the United States was not fully tested until 1838, when the *Sirius* was advertised to leave London for New York. She sailed on the 4th of April with ninety-four passengers. Three days later, the *Great Western*, a wooden paddle-wheel steamer, and the first steamship specially constructed for the purpose, followed her.

To the wonder of the whole world, the two vessels reached their destination in safety, after a passage of seventeen days and fifteen days respectively.

Other vessels followed in the wake of the *Sirius* and the *Great Western*; the possibility of accomplishing the voyage by steam with speed and safety was proved without a doubt, and how to develop what had been so successfully commenced was the prevailing thought in the minds of many.

A matter so important did not escape the attention of Mr. (afterwards Sir) George Burns, of the City of Glasgow Steam Packet Co., to whom Sir Edward Parry, who held an appointment under the Admiralty, as "Comptroller of Steam Machinery and Packet Service," sent an early intimation that the Government wished to establish a mail service between England and America, and were about to issue circulars soliciting tenders for the same. There was no originality in the idea of an Atlantic Steam Mail Service; it was not the thought of any individual, but of all men, and it was co-existent with the introduction of steam for the purposes of ocean navigation.

Up to the year 1838, the Lords' Commissioners of the Admiralty (who, at that time, were invested with the arrangement of postal contracts) had been content to commit Her Majesty's mails for America to the uncertain mercies of sailing vessels, bearing the somewhat unpromising designation of "coffin brigs." Now, they were anxious to avail themselves of the "new force," and to this end they sent out circulars far and wide.

Away in Halifax, Nova Scotia, dwelt Samuel Cunard, a member of a well-to-do Quaker family, which emigrated from Wales to America early in the seventeenth century and settled at Philadelphia. The family, being Royalists, left the United States for Halifax, where, in 1788, Samuel Cunard was born.

*See page 127. For much of the information in this chapter, we are indebted to "Sir George Burns, Bart, His Times and Friends."

†"The Fleet of the Future," by Scott Russell, page 20.

He had watched eagerly the progress of steam navigation, and as early as the year 1830, the idea of establishing "Ocean Lines," similar to lines of railway, had occurred to him. It was his firm belief that steamers, over a route of thousands of miles in length, might start and arrive at their destination with a punctuality not differing greatly from that of railway trains, the conditions for obtaining this result being that the ships should be thoroughly well-built and thoroughly well manned, and their course laid down with the greatest accurracy. The steam-ship, in fact, was to be the railway train *minus* the longitudinal pair of metal rails. The latter, Samuel Cunard used to observe half jokingly, half in earnest, were needed only on the "ugly, uneven land," with its excresences of high hills and deep valleys, and the "beautiful level sea" needed them not. His friends laughed; but none could help seeing that there was truth in the seeming paradox.

When, therefore, in 1839, one of the Admiralty circulars, inviting tenders for the conveyance of mails between England and America, fell into his hands, he saw at once that the opportunity for which he had waited so long had come. But Samuel Cunard, although he had all the necessary personal qualifications for carrying out such a scheme, lacked one important element, namely, capital. He tried to induce the merchants of Halifax to join him in the enterprise, but in vain. Then, as he was not a man to quail before discouragement, he determined to proceed without delay to London, to see if he could enlist the sympathy and financial support of the merchants there.

THE "GREAT WESTERN."

In London he made the acquaintance of Mr. Robert Napier, the famous Clyde ship-builder and engineer, who had built several steamers for the East India Company, and was successful in securing his valuable co-operation and that of Mr. George Burns. His chief difficulties were soon overcome, for within a few days—entirely through the instrumentality of Mr. Burns—the requisite capital of £270,000 was subscribed, and he was enabled to join in the tender to the Admiralty of a most eligible offer for the conveyance of Her Majesty's mails once a fortnight between Liverpool, Halifax and Boston. A rival offer was made by the owners of the steamship *Great Western*, but the tender of Mr. Cunard was considered to be the more favourable, and accordingly a contract for a period of seven years was concluded between the Government and the newly-formed company. The contract was taken in the names of, and was signed by, Samuel Cunard, George Burns, and David MacIver, three names thenceforth indissolubly connected with the success of the famous concern now known as the Cunard Line.

The first four steam-ships provided by the Cunard Company were the *Britannia*, *Acadia*, *Caledonia*, and *Columbia*, the nomenclature of the Cunard ships ending in "ia." These four ships were wooden paddle-wheel vessels, built respectively on the Clyde, in 1840, by R. Duncan, J. Wood, C. Wood, and R. Steel, and supplied with common side-lever engines by Robert Napier. The *Britannia*, which was the pioneer vessel of the fleet, measured 207 ft. long × 34 ft. 4 in. broad × 22 ft. 6 in. deep, with a tonnage burden of 1,154, and an indicated horse-power of 740. Her cargo capacity was 225 tons, and she was fitted for the accommodation of 115 cabin, but no steerage, passengers. The horse-power and passenger and cargo accommodation of the other three ships were identical with those of the *Britannia* while their dimensions and tonnage only varied very slightly from hers. Their average speed was 8½ knots per hour, on a coal consumption of 38 tons per day.

On Friday, the 4th of July, 1840—the "Celebration Day" of American Independence—the *Britannia*, punctual to the very minute of the advertised time, left her moorings on the Mersey, amidst the cheering of immense crowds, acknowledged by Mr. Samuel Cunard, who himself went out with the first mail steamer to America. It was calculated that the *Britannia* would reach Boston in fourteen days and a half, but she entered the harbour four hours before the time, having made the voyage in fourteen days and eight hours, at that time considered a rapid passage. The arrival of the first mail steamer in America created even greater enthusiasm than her departure from the English side. It was testified not only by an unprecedented ovation in bunting and cheering, but the citizens of Boston celebrated the occasion by giving a magnificent public banquet, at which their enthusiasm found vent in speeches of the most complimentary nature. During the first twenty-four hours of his stay at Boston, it was recorded in the local papers with justifiable pride that Mr. Samuel Cunard received no less than 1,873 invitations to dinner!

An incident in connection with the return voyage of the *Britannia* gave proof that these expressions of good-will were not of an evanescent character. The winter of 1840-41 having set in very early with great severity, the *Britannia* was frozen up in Boston Harbour, and there was no little fear that she would be imprisoned in the ice for many months. Thereupon the good Bostonians, at their own expense, and with the willing help of thousands of volunteers, cut a channel of more than seven miles in length to get the steamer into clear water.

Such was the origin of the Cunard Company, and the path made by the *Britannia* and followed by her sister ships, became the great highway of traffic between two hemispheres. But no one at that time ventured to prophesy what the future would be. Even Mr. Cunard in his wildest dream never pictured a *Servia*, an *Etruria*, or a *Campania*—floating cities, ocean palaces, homes of luxury, with music rooms and boudoirs, state rooms heated with hot water, marble baths, promenade decks, and night turned into day by the electric light. We, in turn, looking back, see in the *Britannia* a comparatively small paddle-wheel boat, with little accommodation, plain table, inferior light, and a meagre number of passengers; but out of those voyages of the *Britannia* and her sister boats grew up the whole system of luxurious and rapid ocean travelling.

After the first four vessels were placed in the mail service between Liverpool, Halifax, and Boston, in 1840, others followed in quick succession, and in each the newest and most reliable advances in scientific engineering were introduced. Thus in 1845 the *Cambria* and *Hibernia*, each of 500 horse-power and of 1,422 tons, with an average speed of 9¼ knots, were brought into the service; in 1848 the *America*,

Niagara, *Europa*, and *Canada* were added to the fleet, each of about 1,820 tons, and 680 horse-power, with an average speed of 10¼ knots—and so on, continually, each fresh batch of vessels corresponding to the increasing demands of the public for greater speed and for improved accommodation.

Then came the great contest for maritime supremacy on the Atlantic Ocean, when American enterprise came into the field and organised a formidable rival to the English Company in the Collins Line.

Four magnificent vessels were contracted for—the *Arctic*, *Baltic*, *Atlantic* and *Pacific*—vessels equal, if not superior, to any constructed of wood then afloat.

The contest was for the supremacy of ocean steam navigation, and the combatants were a wealthy company backed up by their Government with a subsidy of $19,250 per voyage, which was soon increased to $33,000 per voyage, equal to about £178,750 per annum, and a private firm of a few individuals, absolutely without Government subsidy. In 1850, the Collins Line began to run, the head and front of their scheme being to sweep the Atlantic of the Cunarders. To attain this, it was made a *sine quâ non* by the American Government that the Collins vessels should be run at a *greatly increased rate of speed.*

The Cunard Company were equal to the occasion; they put on new vessels, but they would not move a finger towards any plan that should in the slightest degree endanger their ships or the lives of their passengers.

"The competition between these two great lines of steam-ships," says Mr. Lindsay,* "excited extraordinary public interest at the time on both sides of the Atlantic, and, indeed, in all parts of the world; numerous records were kept for twelve months of the length of the respective voyages of the ships of the contending companies, and large sums of money were expended in bets on the result of each passage."

For four years the Collins Line encountered no accidents worthy of note, but in 1854 a terrible series of disasters commenced. In September of that year the *Arctic* went down with fearful loss of life, the wife, son, and daughter of Mr. Collins being among the number who perished. A little more than twelve months later the *Pacific* left Liverpool and was never heard of again.

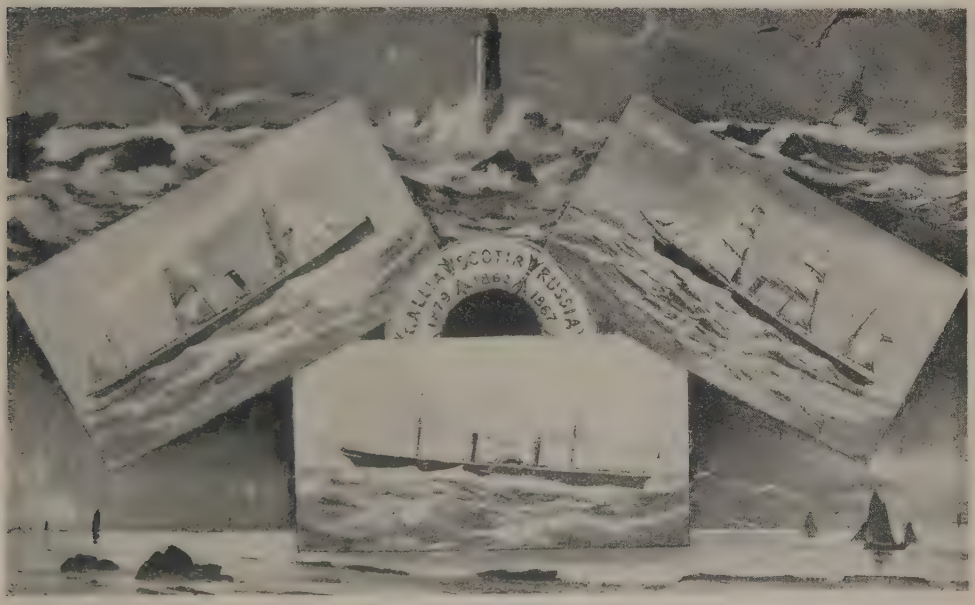
Still the Collins Company persevered. Capital was found to replace the vessels they had lost, but before they were ready for service the new Cunarders were on the seas, defying all competition, their average speed for the year 1856 eclipsing not only that of the Collins Line, but of another line specially adapted for the conveyance of emigrants, and, in fact, of all the principal steamers of all countries then engaged in the Transatlantic trade.

In 1858 came the total collapse of the Collins Line, and the determination of the American Government not to aid from the public purse any company which might take its place.

We cannot trace, step by step, the progress of the Cunard Company, or tell of the curious immunity from accident to their vessels, which was doubtless due to the principle they had adopted of acting with the greatest caution in all things, and never bringing any new invention into use until it had been thoroughly tested. "Their solicitude," says a writer in *The Naval and Military Magazine*, "begins at the keel of each vessel, and continues throughout the whole course of construction. The progress of the work is closely scrutinised by the Company's general and engineer superintendents; and, in addition, a foreman, carpenter, and rivet inspector are constantly employed in

* History of Merchant Shipping, Vol. IV.

the building-yard, for the sole purpose of detecting defective material or workmanship and having it rectified. Before every voyage a thorough examination of ship and crew is made by the general and marine superintendents and other officials. The men are mustered and exercised in boat drill, fire drill, and pump drill; heed being taken that every man knows his proper position, so as to avoid panic or confusion in the event of a sudden emergency. An inspection is then made of the store-rooms, the rockets and other signals are critically examined, and the doors of the water-tight compartments are shut and tested; and each day, while the ship is at sea, the men stationed at the water-tight doors are mustered, and every water-tight door in the ship is closed; the chief officer and chief engineer reporting to the captain at 1 p.m. the condition of the doors in their respective departments. Knowing how much depends upon the acuteness of vision possessed by the officers and look-out men, the greatest care is taken to guard against weak sight or colour-blindness in every person connected with the sailing department. An exhaustive code of instructions has been compiled for the use of



captains, officers, engineers, and every man on board, plainly stating their individual duties, and laying down distinct rules for their guidance under all circumstances. Lastly, with a view of diminishing the chances of collision, the Company's Atlantic steamers take specified courses, according to the seasons of the year. Indeed, all the means which human forethought can devise, and long experience teach, are enlisted to secure the safety of lives and property."

With all these precautions, we cannot wonder that Mark Twain should say "he felt himself rather safer on board a Cunard steamer than he did upon land."

On the 8th of September, 1892, and on the 2nd of February, 1893, in the presence of many thousands of interested, and some anxious, spectators, there was launched at Govan on the Clyde, from the yard of The Fairfield Shipbuilding and Engineering Company Limited, the Cunard Company's *Campania* and *Lucania* respectively, the biggest vessels—with the single exception of the *Great Eastern*—that had ever been constructed in any public or private shipbuilding establishment in the world. Only one

vessel, the *Oceanic*, launched in 1899, belonging to the White Star Line, has eclipsed these huge Cunarders, and it is too early to comment here upon her career. *

THE "CAMPANIA," ONE OF THE FASTEST ATLANTIC LINERS, 1900.

*To those who would know something of the construction of a first-class modern steamship and who are interested in scientific details we commend the following extracts from the official description of the *Campania*, which applies also to the *Lucania*. "Length over all, 620 feet; breadth extreme, 65 feet, 3 inches; depth from upper deck, 43 feet; gross tonnage, 12,950 tons. The vessel has a straight stem and elliptic stern, top-gallant forecastle and poop, with close bulwarks all fore and aft, the erections above the upper consisting of two tiers of deckhouses, surmounted respectively by the promenade and shade decks. She appears in fore and aft rig, with two pole masts. . . . All the scantlings have been specially arranged, and every advantage taken of the improved sections of steel, known as channel and zed bars, &c., in order to increase the strength without adding unnecessarily to the total weight. . . . The bulkheads, sixteen in number, are in excess of the recommendations of the Board of Trade Committee on the fitting and spacing of watertight bulkheads, and they will enable the vessel to float with any two, or in some cases three, of the compartments open to the sea. In addition to these qualifications, the Admiralty requirements for armed cruisers in times of war have been complied with. The decks have been specially arranged and strengthened to carry guns, and steering gear of a special type fitted under water. Arrangements have also been made for the protection of the vital parts of the ship. The keel is of the flat-plate description, and a cellular double bottom, fitted with draining and flooding arrangements to make it available for water ballast, extends all fore and aft. The shell plating, which is in lengths of 26 feet and over, is fitted on the lap-butt principle from the keel plate up to about the water line. Above that the plates are butted and fitted with double straps. The construction of the vessel at the stern is peculiar. Although fitted with twin screws, there is an aperture in the stern frame similar to that in a single screw steamer. This is provided that the propellers may work freely, though they are fitted close to the centre line of the ship in order to prevent damage to or from the quay walls. No struts are fitted at the stern frame to support the outer end of the shafts as in most other twin screw steamers. These are in the present case dispensed with, and the frames of the hull are bossed out and plated over right aft to form the stern tubes. At the outer ends of these, strong castings of steel serve the purpose of shaft brackets, and being in continuation of the lines of the hull are calculated to offer the least resistance to free propulsion. The rudder, which is fitted entirely under water, is of the single plate type, being formed of a heavy steel casting with massive arms, between which a thick plate is fitted and riveted. The whole arrangement, therefore, of the *Campania's* stern impresses one as uncommon in other respects than that of merely size.

Besides the superstructure already mentioned there are four complete tiers of beams, all of which are plated over with steel, and sheathed with wood planks, and form what are termed the upper, main, lower, and orlop decks. The last is used for cargo, refrigerating chambers, store-rooms, etc.; while the others are entirely devoted to the accommodation of passengers, and contain the usual dining and social saloons. . . . The casings around the boiler-rooms are double, the intervening spaces being filled with a material which is at once a non-conductor of heat and sound. The *Campania* is thoroughly ventilated by both natural and artificial means. The greater number of the side lights are fitted with an arrangement for the free admission of air, even when during rough weather the lights are closed. A complete system of steam heating pipes provides for the warming of all 'the living spaces.' There is also an installation of electric light on the most extensive scale. The *Campania* has two sets of the most powerful triple expansion engines that have ever been constructed. They are fitted with two separate engine-rooms on either side of a dividing centre line bulkhead fitted with watertight doors for the purpose of communication. . . . The reversing engines are of the steam and hydraulic direct-acting type, . . . and are fitted with patent automatic emergency gear. . . . The condensing water is circulated through the condensers by four large centrifugal pumps each driven by an independent compound engine. These pumps may also, if required, be used to pump water from the ship in case of damage to the hull. An elaborate system of piping is fitted throughout the ship, and connected to the various auxiliary pumps for filling and emptying the ballast tanks, pumping out bilges, pumping water on deck in case of fire, and other purposes. In the engine room are also four evaporators to produce the necessary fresh water from sea water, and thereby make up the loss incurred through working, and avoid the use of salt waters in the boilers. There are also all the most modern appliances to economise fuel and labour. Steam for the main engines is generated in twelve large double-ended boilers. There is also a large single-ended boiler for supplying steam for the electric light, refrigerating and other auxiliary machinery. . . . The main boilers are arranged in two groups, having one funnel for each group."

The early successes of the Cunard Line brought many leading men of the shipping world into the Atlantic Steam-Ship trade, and in 1850 and 1851, there was a remarkable competition for the conveyance of visitors to the Great Exhibition of the latter year. Then was founded the Oceanic Steam Navigation Co.—afterwards known as the White Star Line, belonging to the firm of Ismay, Imrie, and Co.

In 1850 Mr. William Inman, a junior partner in the firm of Richardson Brothers and Co., agents of the Liverpool, New York, and Philadelphia Steam Ship Co., was the first to suggest, and to provide, better accommodation in the steerage for humble emigrants to the New World at prices within the compass of their purses, and so the horrible old packet ships were driven off the ocean. It was Mr. Inman who, in 1850, introduced the screw propeller in substitution of the paddle or side wheel, and it was

THE "OCEANIC."

used for the first time with safety and speed in the *City of Glasgow* from Liverpool to Philadelphia and back, notwithstanding that, in alarm, the underwriters had charged a special rate for her insurance. In a short time the screw propeller was adopted by every ocean-going line.

In 1854 Mr. Inman became Managing Director of the famous company which took his name, and he was the first to introduce the practice of calling at Queenstown to take up the latest passengers and mails.

The story of the science of navigation is full of interest, but to tell it would require a whole library. Take one incident:—In October, 1708, Sir Cloudesley Shovel, returning with his fleet from the Mediterranean, lay to, uncertain of his position in the

Channel. "About noon," says his biographer, "he hove to, but at six in the evening he made sail again and stood away under his courses, believing, as is supposed, that he saw the light on St. Agnes, one of the islands of Scilly." Before daylight the Admiral's ship and several of the vessels of his fleet were wrecked upon the inhospitable shore, and a large number of the finest seamen in England perished with their chief. This led to an official inquiry and eventually an Act of Parliament was passed (12 Anne, cap. 15) granting £2,000 for experiments to be made for ascertaining the means of finding the longitude at sea, and offering a reward of £20,000 to anyone who should discover a method, applicable for use at sea, for discovering the longitude *within a limit of error of sixty miles*!* To-day, if we have to cut the end of a cable at any spot in mid-ocean, not otherwise defined than by latitude and longitude, and leave it there, our navigators can return to it at any interval of time with such certainty as to be sure of the position *within half a mile!*

It is a remarkable fact that from 1840 there was scarcely a session of Parliament during the ensuing fifty years without some legislation in respect of British shipping and seamen, nor was there any break in the prosecution of inquiries having for

Photo. *West & Son, Southsea.*

THE "CANOPUS."

their object the safety, welfare, and improvement of British ships, and the advancement of the interests of British seamen. A glance will show some of the results of these investigations. "Lighthouses have been multiplied and improved, sound signals have been established; harbours have been constructed, deepened, and made accessible; charts have been perfected; the classification of ships has been revised; tonnage measurement has been reformed, an excellent system of ship registry has been established; masters, mates, and engineers have been required to pass examinations; they can be cashiered if drunken or incompetent; offices are set up where seamen are engaged and discharged, where they receive their wages, and where their characters are recorded; savings-banks and money-orders are provided for them; they have summary means of recovering wages; special provision is made concerning their food, medicine,

*Quarterly Review, No 281 Jan 1876.

and lodging. Life-boats, and rocket apparatus for saving life from ship-wreck, are established round the coasts; every wreck is made the subject of investigation more or less stringent; ship-wrecked property is protected from plunder; international rules have been made for preventing collision; an international code of general signals has been established, as well as an international system of signals of distress. Above all, burdens and restrictions of all kinds, general and local, have been removed, so that ship and sailor are now absolutely free from all burdens, except such regulations and such taxes as are needed for their own welfare."*

At a meeting of the British Association, held at Dover in September, 1899, Sir William White, Director of Naval Construction, read a paper, in which he summarised the progress made in Atlantic steam navigation since 1840. He stated that speed has

THE LIFEBOAT.

been increased from 8½ to 22½ knots; the time on the voyage has been reduced to about 38 per cent. of what it was in 1840. Ships have been more than trebled in length, about doubled in breadth, and increased tenfold in displacement. The number of passengers carried by a steamship has been increased from about 100 to nearly 2,000. The engine-power has been made forty times as great. The ratio of horse-power to the weight driven has been increased fourfold. The rate of coal consumption (measured per horse-power per hour) is now only about one-third of what it was in 1840. To drive 2,000 tons' weight across the Atlantic, at a speed of 8½ knots, about 550 tons of coal were then burnt; now, to drive 20,000 tons across at 22 knots, about 3,000 tons of coal are

* Ibid.

burnt. With the low pressure of steam and heavy slow-moving paddle-engines of 1840, each ton weight of machinery, boilers, &c., produced only about 2-horse power for continuous working at sea. With modern twin-screw engines, and high steam-pressure, each ton weight of propelling apparatus produces from 6 to 7-horse power. Had the old rate of coal consumption continued, instead of 3,000 tons of coal, 9,000 tons would have been required for a voyage at 22 knots. Had the engines been proportionately as heavy as those in use sixty years ago, they would have weighed about 14,000 tons. In other words, machinery, boilers, and coals, would have exceeded in weight the total weight of the *Campania* as she floats to-day. There could not be a more striking illustration than this of the close relation between improvements in marine engineering and the development of steam navigation at high speeds.

With regard to the future of steam navigation, the schemes for attaining speeds of fifty to sixty knots in vessels of moderate size are very problematical, although there is nothing to indicate that improvement has reached its limit, or that great discoveries may

ROCKET APPARATUS.

not yet be made. Already avenues for further progress are being opened as the century closes; the use of water-tube boilers has resulted in saving one-third of the weight necessary with cylindrical boilers of the ordinary type to obtain the same power, and the use of rotary engines, of which Mr. Parson's turbo-motor is the leading example at present, gives the prospect of further economies of weight, while the use of liquid fuel would make a difference of 1,000 tons on a first-class Atlantic liner. It is considered practically certain that the dimensions of steamships have not yet attained their maximum.

Other improvements, some in process of development, will doubtless affect the future of steam navigation. In "cellulose," already in use in America, a new water-tight lining for ships has been discovered, which, laid upon the back of plates, is stated to make vessels carrying it practically unsinkable by shot. Cellulose, accidentally

discovered by a French naval officer, is manufactured from the fibre of cocoanut husks, with a capacity for absorbing at least eight times its weight in water. "It is used," says a scientific journal, "as a net for vessels, forming a layer several inches thick on the back of steel plates, and rendering vessels unsinkable, seeing that if a shot penetrates a ship's armour and passes through the cellulose, the latter bulges out when touched by water and plugs the hole."

Another important improvement looms large upon the near horizon. When aluminium—a metal discovered in 1828, and found in clay, rocky, and other earthy substances—can be made as cheaply as steel it will probably supersede the latter for all purposes in which lightness, combined with tenacity and strength, is a vital essential. The day is, perhaps, not far off when passenger vessels, aiming at high speed, will be built of this white metal. When fused and cast into moulds, aluminium is as soft and ductile as silver, but hammered and rolled it becomes harder than steel. It may be that when it can be produced as cheaply as steel, the distance between the Old and New Worlds will be accomplished by aluminium ships, lined with cellulose, in far less time than the fleetest "Atlantic greyhounds" now take to cover it.

One of the greatest, if not *the* greatest achievement of the nineteenth century has been the construction of railways. It has revolutionised land travelling and the distribution of commodities, altered the face of the country, originated innumerable industries, developed hitherto dormant resources, and re-cast the habits and customs of the people. We have told of the first introduction of railways in an earlier chapter, * we will now proceed to trace their further development.

When the Queen came to the throne, railway travelling was quite in its infancy; it had only been tried for short distances either in England or America. But in 1838 the London and Birmingham line was opened throughout its whole length, and in that year an Act of Parliament for the transmission of the Mails by railway, was passed. Other lines were then opened in rapid succession:—the Eastern Counties, now the Great Eastern, in 1839; the London and South Western (to Southampton) in 1840; the Great Western, and the London and Brighton, in 1841; the Edinburgh and Glasgow in 1842, the Great Northern in 1850, and so on, until at length railways spread like a network over the whole land.

With the facilities to travel there sprang up a new spirit in the English people. A land or sea journey had hitherto been so formidable an enterprise that comparatively few were willing to undertake it. The man in the street, the housewife, the student and schoolboy knew no more of his country, except for twenty miles round, than he did of Timbuctoo, or the Land of Uz; communities dwelling fifty to a hundred miles apart were total strangers to one another except by hearsay, and the prejudices and narrow-mindednesses were as marked between our provincial towns as they were between Continental nations. The Jews had no dealings with the Samaritans, and county prejudices, commercial prejudices, and social prejudices were as rife between town and town as they were between kingdom and kingdom. All this was done away with when railway travelling came into fashion; many errors of judgment were corrected as a better knowledge was gained; and "knowledge grew from more to more" until even peculiarities of dialect, of manners, and of thought became indistinct, and a broader love and charity increased from year to year.

*See page 249.

WRECK CHART
OF THE
BRITISH ISLES
FOR THE YEAR
1897-98:
Compiled from the Board of Trade Register.
SHOWING ALSO THE PRESENT
LIFE BOAT STATIONS.
OF THE
ROYAL NATIONAL LIFE BOAT INSTITUTION.
R. SIGNIFIES A TOTAL LOSS OR A SERIOUS CASUALTY
LB. REPRESENTS A LIFE BOAT.
Scale of Statute Miles
SUMMARY
During the year ended the 30th June 1898 the Number of Vessels lost or damaged on the coasts, and in the seas of the United Kingdom including cases of minor damage, was 4964 and the loss of life as far as can be ascertained was 295.
Life Boats Rockets & Stations
There are 216 209 in England & Wales.
" " 48 45 " Scotland
" " 36 51 " Ireland
" " 6 4 " Isle of Man.
" " 2 0 " Channel Islands.
ATLANTIC OCEAN
IRELAND
NORTH SEA
ENGLISH CHANNEL
HOLLAND
BELGIUM
FRANCE
IRISH SEA
SCOTLAND
ENGLAND
WESTERN ISLES
ORKNEY ISLANDS
SHETLAND ISLANDS
STANDIDGE & Co. LIMITED, LITHO. 36, OLD JEWRY & 18, WORSHIP STREET, E.C.

Railway travelling in those days was not, however, the easy thing it is now; the third class carriages were what we should now regard as mere cattle trucks, without seats, without roof or any protection whatever against the weather. If the passenger were exhausted he could only sit on the floor and be trampled upon, and if it rained, he could not by any means protect himself, as umbrellas were more impossible than on the knife-boards of omnibuses. The second-class carriages were better from the fact that they were roofed, but so close to the head that a tall man travelled in torture; they were nearly dark, in short, a "big box with rough wooden benches in it" is a fairly good description. The first-class carriages were "exactly like the bodies of three stage-coaches joined together."

Not only was accommodation bad in trains to which the third-class carriages were attached, but they also travelled at a very slow speed, stopped at every station, and were shunted to make way for other trains; and it was by no means a rare thing for third-class passengers to find that they had to provide themselves with lodgings for the night, even on journeys which should have been accomplished in a few hours. Mr. Gladstone was the first to call attention to this evil system, and in 1844 he brought in "a Bill for the regulation of railways" dealing with these points, which, of course, met with strong opposition from the representatives of the railway interest in the House of Commons, but was carried after considerable modification.

It was not for some years afterwards that improved accommodation was provided, and the idea that third-class traffic would form the staple business of railway companies, and be more profitable than first and second combined, did not dawn upon directors until within quite recent times.

In 1845 speculation in railways became a mania throughout the United Kingdom. Everybody was smitten by it and there were tens of thousands who were ready to spend their last farthing in a "dabble." In Leeds so desperate was the eagerness for gambling in shares that the police had to be employed to keep clear the streets leading to the Stock Exchange, where it was said a hundred thousand shares were sold in one day in August. In October the public press announced that, within a week, eighty-nine new schemes had been originated with a capital of £84,055,000; while during the month there were three hundred and fifty-seven new schemes announced, with an aggregate capital of £332,000,000.

On the 17th of November, the *Times* published a statement of all the railway companies registered up to the 31st of October, numbering 1,428, and involving an outlay of £701,243,208. "Take away," said that paper, "£140,000,000 for railways completed or in progress, exclude all the most extravagant schemes, and divide the remainder by ten; can we add from our present resources even a tenth of the vast remainder? Can we add £50,000,000 to the railway speculations we are already irretrievably embarked in? We cannot, without the most ruinous, universal, and desperate confusion."

The ruinous, universal, and desperate confusion came in the great panic of 1847. In September of that year the Bank of England raised the rate of discount from eight to twelve per cent, the funds fell one and sometimes two per cent in a single day, until they stood at 79½; great commercial houses failed disastrously, banks stopped payment, and railway shares fell lower and lower until they became unsaleable. Hundreds of homes were made desolate, the joy of success was turned into mourning

for failure, many honest men were ruined while rogues grew fat, and even the "Railway King," George Hudson, whose speculations were the wonder of the time, "went under."

We will not weary the reader with an account of the Battle of the Gauges waged in 1846; suffice it to say that in August of that year the Royal assent was given to a Bill fixing the gauge of all railways to be constructed in the future at 4 ft. 8½ in.

After the effects of the panic had passed, steady progress was made in the development of the railway system, not only here, but in India, the Colonies, and indeed throughout the world.

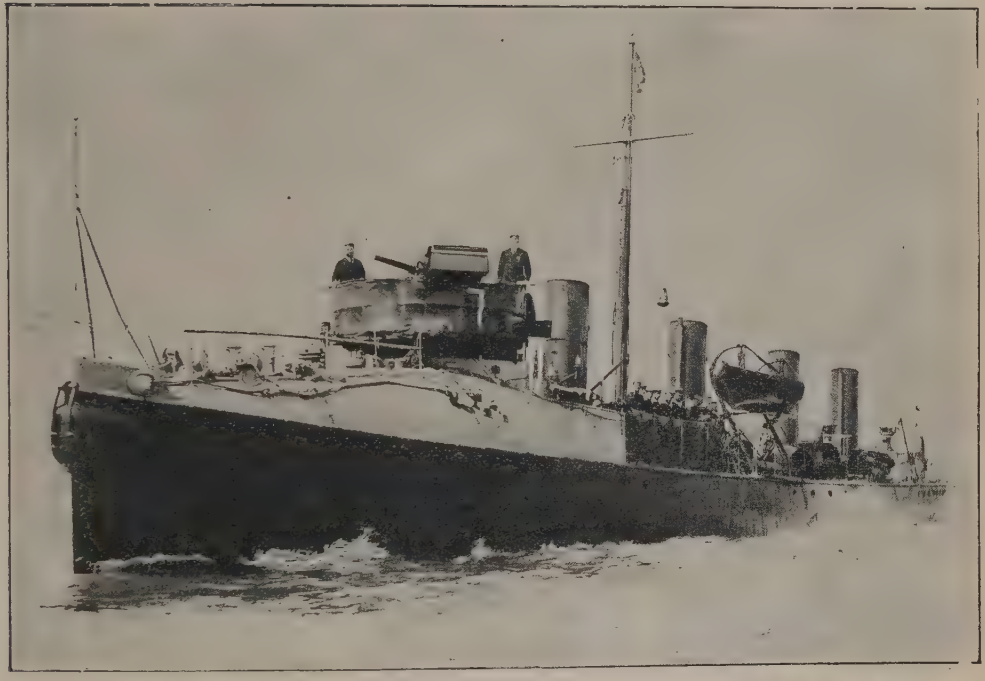
The electric telegraph, although it had its first practical application in the time of which we are writing, was not the mighty power it has since become, and we shall deal with the story of its marvellous developments in a later chapter.

Much misunderstanding and discussion arose as to who was the inventor of the telegraph. In 1816 Mr. (afterwards Sir) Francis Ronalds invented a dial telegraph, and in 1825 a perspective instrument: he offered the former to the Admiralty, and it was "declined with thanks." Professor Wheatstone and Mr. Cooke took out their patent for the invention in 1837, that is to say "for improvements in giving signals and sounding alarms in distant places by means of electric currents, transmitted through metal circuits." This led to two complications. In that same year, Professor Morse the famous American electrician, made an unsuccessful application to Congress to assist him in the construction and carrying out of a small electric telegraph to convey messages a short distance. Next year he came to England to obtain a patent, but found himself forestalled by Messrs. Cooke and Wheatstone. Who was first in the invention is therefore a matter of controversy. The second complication was a dispute as to the relative claims of Messrs. Cooke and Wheatstone, and the matter was submitted to the arbitration of Marc Isambard Brunel and Professor Daniell, who gave their award as follows: "While Mr. Cooke is entitled to stand alone as the gentleman to whom this country is indebted for having practically introduced and carried out the electric telegraph as a useful undertaking, promising to be a work of national importance, and Professor Wheatstone is acknowledged as the scientific man whose profound and successful researches had already prepared the public to receive it as a project capable of practical application; it is to the united labours of the two gentlemen, so well qualified for mutual assistance, that we must attribute the rapid progress which this important invention has made during the five years since they have been associated."

In 1837 a line of telegraph was constructed on the Blackwall Railway and used for the transmission of railway signals, and a little later it was taught to print the messages it carried.

A strange incident occurred in connection with the first practical use of the telegraph. On the 1st of January, 1845, a woman was found by a neighbour lying on the threshold of her house, at Salt Hill, near Slough, in a dying condition. A man, dressed in Quaker costume, was seen at the same time walking away from the house towards the highway. This turned out to be John Tawell, at one time a member of the Society of Friends, who was, however, a ticket-of-leave man, but had established a good business as chemist and druggist at Berkhampstead. The woman died in great agony, and a description of Tawell was sent to London by the new electric telegraph that had just

come into use. He was followed, arrested, and brought to trial, a post mortem examination having shown that death had been caused by prussic acid. John Tawell was hanged (in his Quaker garb), and all the world sang the praises of the marvellous new invention that could thus further the ends of justice.



THE LATEST TYPE OF TORPEDO BOAT.

CHAPTER XXVI.

THE OXFORD MOVEMENT.

NO account of the life of the nineteenth century can claim to be complete which does not include some details of that great revival of High Church principles and practices known as the Oxford Movement, the beginning of which is usually ascribed to an assize sermon preached at Oxford in July, 1833, by the Rev. John Keble, who had recently been elected Professor of Poetry in the University. Much wood is often kindled by a small fire, but unless the wood is dry and ready to burn, a single match will not set it alight, and had not the minds of men been prepared, Mr. Keble's sermon on "National Apostasy" might have produced as little effect as the majority of sermons delivered from the University pulpit. From the days of Archbishop Laud and Bishop Andrewes there had been in the Church of England a succession of men whose teaching and practice were founded upon Rome rather than upon Geneva, or, as they would themselves have said, were but a return to primitive and Catholic Christianity. In some respects John Wesley—at least in his early days—was a High Churchman, as was William Law, the author of the "Serious Call to a Devout and Holy Life," and Dr. Samuel Johnson. William Jones, of Nayland, who died in 1800, was a later exponent of High Church doctrine, and in the early years of the present century Thomas Sikes, of Guilsborough, Henry Handley Norris, and William Van Mildert, who became Bishop of Durham, with many others of lesser note, continued High Church traditions.

Other causes besides the teaching of these men prepared the way for the Oxford Movement; a new interest in medieval religion and ritual had been awakened by the poetry and novels of Sir Walter Scott; Horace Walpole's Strawberry Hill, with its

"Blind windows that exclude the light
And passages that lead to nothing,"

had revived Gothic architecture, and had induced many to study the principles of the art more thoroughly and to adopt them in practice more effectually than Walpole had succeeded in doing. In 1827 Mr. Keble himself had published "The Christian Year" with the object, as he stated in the preface, of bringing the thoughts and feelings of his readers "into more entire unison with those recommended and exemplified in the Prayer Book." Many of the poems contained in this little volume were written long before they appeared in print, and were shown to some of the author's friends, who urged him to publish them. He at last consented to do so, and the book attained a great, though not an immediate, success. He offered the manuscript to a publisher for £50, but the offer was declined because poetry did not pay. In this instance the worthy publisher was wrong, for Mr. Keble published on his own account and ultimately made £12,000 out of "The Christian Year," the whole of which he spent in building churches and in charity.

Many sincere churchmen were alarmed by the repeal of the Corporation and Test Acts, and by the foundation of the so-called godless University of London. Their fears were not abated by the passing of the Reform Bill, and they could not forget that, in the

course of the debates on that measure, Lord Grey had advised the Bishops to put their houses in order. When, therefore, in the Reformed Parliament of 1833, Lord Grey's administration proposed to suppress ten Irish bishoprics, it was felt by many Churchmen that the time had arrived for making a strenuous effort to save the Church from the destruction they feared was imminent, and to assert Church principles as they had not been asserted before.

The result was the publication of the famous "Tracts for the Times," which were begun in 1833, and continued until 1841, when the excitement caused by Mr. Newman's Tract No. 90 put a stop to the series. The principal writers, in addition to Newman, were Keble, Pusey, Hurrell Froude, Isaac Williams, and William Palmer, though there

KEBLE COLLEGE, OXFORD.

were other contributors. Considerable liberty was allowed to the writers, but the general aim of all was to impress upon people "that the Church was more than a merely human institution, that it had privileges, sacraments, a ministry ordained by Christ; and that it was a matter of the highest obligation to remain united to the Church." *

Of all the names connected with the Oxford Movement that of John Henry Newman stands foremost. Born in London in 1801, he took his degree at Oxford at the age of nineteen, and in 1822 became a fellow of Oriel, at that time the most famous college in the University. He subsequently was appointed Vicar of St. Mary's, the University Church, where his sermons attracted the undergraduates in unprecedented

* Palmer's "Narrative."

numbers. "Without those sermons the movement might never have gone on, but certainly would never have been what it was. Plain, direct, unornamental, clothed in English that was only pure and lucid, free from any faults of taste, strong in their flexibility and perfect command both of language and thought, they were the expression of a piercing and large insight into character and conscience and motives, of a sympathy at once most tender and most stern with the tempted and the wavering, of an absolute and burning faith in God and His counsels, in His love, in His judgments, in the awful glory of His generosity and His magnificence." * Newman wrote the first Tract, in which he insisted upon the dignity and importance of the priestly office, the authority of which he rested upon "our apostolical descent." The last Tract, No. 90, was also his, and in it he attempted to show that the Thirty-nine Articles of the Church of England were not so Protestant as was generally believed, but were quite susceptible of a Catholic interpretation. At that time, 1841, he was, as he himself admitted in his "Apologia," published long afterwards, "on his deathbed as regards his membership with the Anglican Church." In September, 1843, he resigned St. Mary's, and in November, 1845, was received into the Church of Rome, where he afterwards became Cardinal. But he was never an extreme Romanist; he cordially detested many of Cardinal Manning's methods, and, after a break of some years, resumed intercourse with many of his Anglican friends Once in his old age, when staying at the Deanery of St. Paul's, he asked a friend to take him quietly into the Cathedral, that he might hear Anglican chanting again, for he said "I never hear such music now." Dean Stanley used to assert, and on one occasion told Newman himself, that he (Newman) would never have

ST. MARY'S, OXFORD.

* "The Oxford Movement;" Dean Church, Ch. VII.

left the Church of England had he been able to read German, and Newman did not contradict the statement. Many eminent clergymen and laymen have left the Church of England for the Church of Rome in consequence of the Oxford Movement, and of all these converts, or perverts, Newman was the most influential and important.

"In quietness and in confidence shall be your strength" is the motto on the title-page of 'The Christian Year,' and no words could describe so well the life of Mr. Keble. His undergraduate career was brilliant, and he would have filled as important a position at Oxford as Mr. Newman or Dr. Pusey had he not felt it his duty to leave the University and become his father's curate. He was subsequently Vicar of Hursley in Hampshire, but with the exception of the Professorship of Poetry at Oxford, which he held for ten years, he never obtained any important position in the University or the Church. He was, however, the wise and trusted counsellor of the leaders of the Movement, and somewhat reluctantly became Dr. Pusey's confessor. Keble College, incorporated in 1870, four years after his death, for providing an academical education to members of the Church of England at a less cost than the older colleges, is a permanent monument to his memory.

From Dr. Pusey's name are derived two words "Puseyism" and "Puseyite," now to be found in English dictionaries. Edward Bouverie Pusey was the aristocratic leader of the Oxford Movement. His first book, a sketch of German Theology, was condemned by many good men as leaning very decidedly towards German Rationalism. The charge was quite unfounded, and its groundlessness should have taught Dr. Pusey a lesson of toleration for others that he never learnt. His chief contributions to the Tracts were on Baptism and the Eucharist. After Newman's reception into the Roman Church, Dr. Pusey was pre-eminently the leader of the Tractarian party, and his example and firmness in the crisis caused by Newman's departure kept within the Church of England many who would otherwise have followed Newman to Rome. The exodus was large, but that it was not larger is certainly due to Pusey's teaching. In a conversation with two English clergymen* the late Pope, Pius IX. referred to Professor Pusey—he was Hebrew Professor at Oxford—as "a bell always calling people into church but never entering it." From his own point of view, His Holiness was not far from the truth, for however much Dr. Pusey might assert the absolute Catholicity of the Church of England, there was a constant, though not an abundant, flow of his disciples into the Church of Rome. His labours were manifold, his charities liberal, and to the end of his long and honoured life he defended with patience and profound learning the positions he had taken up in the "Tracts for the Times."

The publication of the Tracts created serious alarm. They set forth opinions on such subjects as Apostolical Succession, Baptism, the Eucharist, the true nature and authority of the Church, and the Clerical Office that staggered many minds. The earlier numbers were written for the most part in terse, vigorous language, and were circulated as widely as possible, especially among the clergy. Towards the end of 1834 the first forty-six were collected into a volume and sent forth with an "advertisement" explaining the objects of the writers. This advertisement asserted the necessity of reviving doctrines, which "although held by the great divines of our church, at present have become obsolete with the majority of her members and are withdrawn from public view even by the more learned and orthodox few who still adhere to them." Those who resorted to "dissenting preachers" did not stand excused in God's sight for yielding to

* A. P. Stanley and B. Jowett.

temptation, and the right of private judgment was condemned as cruel in itself and doubly hurtful as throwing men "on such teachers as speak daringly and promise largely, and not only aid but supersede individual exertion."

In 1836 the leaders of the movement took a new departure by beginning to publish translations of some of the works of the early Christian Fathers, with the object of showing that the views set forth in the Tracts were in agreement with the teaching of the Primitive Church. In the same year they were involved in a bitter controversy over the appointment of Dr. Hampden to the Regius Professorship of Divinity. In 1832 Hampden had delivered the Bampton Lectures and as in duty bound had published them. At that time they excited no more attention than other lectures on the same foundation, but Mr. Newman and other High Churchmen discovered, later on, that the lectures were full of heretical statements, and on Dr. Hampden's appointment to the Divinity Professorship Newman published a pamphlet entitled "Elucidations of Dr. Hampden's Theological Statements" which certainly was well calculated to alarm the timid, and, by carefully selected quotations, often torn from the context, to show that Hampden was unsound on the doctrine of the Trinity and on other articles of the creeds. Newman was so far successful that a vote hostile to Hampden was carried in the Convocation of the University, and other steps were taken to neutralise, as far as possible, the effects of the appointment. The Prime Minister, Lord Melbourne, who had appointed Hampden, was wantonly attacked, and though he could easily have shamed and silenced his opponents, with marvellous forbearance he spared them. Before promoting Dr. Hampden he had consulted the Archbishop of Canterbury, who stated in writing that he knew of no objection to the appointment, and when, after the publication of Newman's "Elucidations," the Archbishop joined in the outcry against the new Regius Professor, Lord Melbourne would not expose him to the censure which his weakness and vacillation richly deserved. "I call that the conduct of a perfect gentleman," was Mr. Gladstone's comment long afterwards on Lord Melbourne's forbearance.

The Oxford Tractarians had begun to persecute, a game which, as they subsequently found to their cost, others could play. Dr. Hampden had many influential friends who were justly annoyed at the treatment he received. Dr. Arnold, in an article headed "The Oxford Malignants," gave vent to his indignation in the Edinburgh Review. Arnold's warmth of heart and impassioned earnestness may have betrayed him into exaggerated language which those whom he attacked were only too willing to dwell upon, but, as a living High Churchman has remarked, "In spite of Arnold's exaggerated language, men felt there was reason in what he said."*

"The beginning of strife is as when one letteth out water," and the Hampden controversy was the first of many similar struggles,—all arising more or less out of the Oxford Movement,—which have disturbed the peace and hindered the progress of the Church of England for more than sixty years. Even controversy is better than sleep, but reasonable men will regret that the sober, peaceable, sons of the Church have so often been reduced to silence by the angry cries of noisy, though doubtless earnest disputants. As the publication of the Tracts proceeded they provoked answers, and most of the Bishops found it necessary to refer to them in their charges. The example of the Bishops was in many instances followed by their archdeacons, and the voice of controversy was heard throughout the land. In 1841 four Oxford tutors, one of whom, Mr. Tait, became Bishop of London and died Archbishop of Canterbury, memorialised the Vice-Chancellor of the University against Tract No. 90, and the Heads of Houses, without allowing

* Dean Boyle's "Recollections," p. 77.

Mr. Newman a fair time to defend himself, condemned the Tract. In the following year Dr. Pusey was censured by a committee of six doctors for having in a sermon on the Eucharist, preached from the University pulpit, used unorthodox language, and he was forbidden to preach for some years. In 1844 Mr. W. G. Ward was by a vote of Convocation deprived of his degree for having in his "Ideal of a Christian Church" asserted that the Thirty-nine Articles must of necessity be subscribed in a non-natural sense. This was in Dr. Pusey's opinion "the most exasperating defence which could well be offered." Mr. Ward almost immediately seceded to Rome, and though he never took Roman orders, was for some time a professor in St. Edmund's College at Ware. Later in life, having succeeded to a property in the Isle of Wight, he became the neighbour and one of the most intimate friends of Tennyson. In spite of his Romanism, he cultivated the acquaintance of Anglican clergymen. "Put me next to the Vicar," he said to his wife, as she was arranging the order of their guests at a dinner-party, "I do so love a parson."

Barraud.

J. H. NEWMAN.

The secessions to Rome, which had begun in 1841, continued, and have not yet ceased. They were most numerous however in 1845, when Newman went over, and again after the decision of the Gorham case, five years later, when Archdeacon Manning and Mr. Hope Scott seceded.

The Gorham case was another instance of clerical, or episcopal, intolerance, though this time the victim, Mr. Gorham, was not a High Churchman, but an Evangelical. In 1847 he was presented to the living of Bramford Speke, in the diocese of Exeter, but before instituting him Bishop Philpotts insisted upon examining him to ascertain if he were sound in doctrine; in the course of a long examination Mr. Gorham practically denied that infants were regenerated in baptism, whereupon the Bishop refused institution. Mr. Gorham then applied to the Court of Arches to compel the Bishop to institute, and after considering the case for a year and a half, the Judge upheld the Bishop's decision. Mr. Gorham next appealed to the Privy Council, who decided in his favour; the judgment, which was delivered by Lord Langdale, Master of the Rolls, being, in Macaulay's opinion, "worthy of D'Aguesseau or Mansfield." It naturally offended the High Churchmen and pleased the Evangelical party, but its chief merit lies in the fact that it was tolerant and widened the boundaries of the Church of England, which High Churchmen and Low Churchmen were anxious to straighten so as to exclude their opponents. No attempt was made in that judgment, or in subsequent judgments of the Board in ecclesiastical cases, to define the doctrines of the Church of England; the Judges have restricted themselves to the question immediately before them—whether the doctrine or the practices under their consideration are or are not contrary to the Articles and the Prayer Book. The Bishop of Exeter was, of course, dissatisfied with the final judgment in the Gorham case, and protested, but his protest, though supported by his diocesan synod and many High Churchmen, was useless so far as the institution of Mr. Gorham was concerned. It relieved the Bishop's feelings and

did no real harm. But it is worth while, before leaving the subject, to remember that had the Privy Council upheld the Bishop of Exeter, the Evangelical party would have been driven out of the Church of England, and Liberal clergymen, or Broad Churchmen, must have gone too.

Lawyers have reaped a rich harvest from the Oxford Movement, for High, Low, and Broad Churchmen have all been persecuted in turn, and High and Low Churchmen have been too ready to turn upon one another, and have sometimes combined to persecute Liberal Churchmen, as in the case of the Essayists and Reviewers in 1862, and of Bishop Colenso about the same time. To chronicle all the legal proceedings to which these persecutions gave rise would occupy more space than we can afford, and it would be well that many of them should be forgotten. But, unhappily, their memory is kept alive by controversialists whose zeal and earnestness outweigh their charity and common sense. At such times—

> "Hard words, jealousies, and fears,
> Set folk together by the ears,
> And made them fight like mad or drunk
> For dame Religion."*

Two of these trials must, however, be briefly referred to, because in the result they showed that at least some of the most important teaching of the leaders of the movement was not incompatible with the Articles and Prayer Book. In 1852 Archdeacon Denison, with the intention of bringing the question to a test, preached two sermons in Wells Cathedral in which he plainly set forth his views on the Eucharist. The sermons were subsequently published, and legal proceedings, which were protracted over seven years, were begun against the Archdeacon, who had asserted a real Presence in the elements, to which, as he said, adoration was due. He had probably expressed himself, as was his wont, more dogmatically and in more precise terms than the subject, properly dealt with, would admit, and he was sentenced to deprivation, but the sentence was set aside by the Privy Council on legal grounds. This decision left unsettled the question how far a doctrine of a real Presence in the Eucharist was tenable in the Church of England, and the subject was again raised in an action brought against Mr. Bennett, Vicar of Frome, and ultimately decided by the Privy Council in 1872. They held, to put the matter shortly, that in asserting a supernatural Presence in the Eucharist, in referring to the Eucharist as a sacrifice, and in the somewhat obscure language he had used respecting the adoration of Our Lord in the Sacrament, Mr. Bennett had not contravened the Articles of the Church of England. The judgment of the Privy Council in the Bennett case was as favourable to High Churchmen as the judgment in the Gorham case had been to Evangelicals; and both judgments were wise, conciliatory, and tolerant.

Eucharistic doctrine has developed widely since 1872, and Dr. Pusey and Mr. Bennett would, were they now living, be unable to accompany many extreme High Churchmen as far as they now go. But theological doctrines are difficult subjects to handle, and had it not been necessary, in describing the life of the century, to make some reference to them, these pages would not have been occupied with the story of these painful controversies.

The word "Ritualist" has not yet been used in this chapter, but Ritualism is so distinctly a product of the Oxford Movement, and is so much discussed in the present day, that something must now be said about it. The leaders of the movement were not

*Butler's "Hudibras."

Ritualists—in the sense the word is now understood. Dr. Pusey's dress in church did not differ from that of his brother Canons at Christchurch, and Bishop Hamilton of Salisbury—probably in doctrine the most advanced High Churchman of his day on the Episcopal bench—strongly objected to his chaplains ceasing to wear bands, which, if used at all, are now only to be seen round the necks of a few old-fashioned clergymen. The leaders of the Oxford Movement did not like the black, so-called Geneva gown, almost universally used in the pulpit of parish churches, sixty years ago, and now almost as generally abandoned.* In 1842 Bishop Blomfield strongly urged the clergy of the diocese of London to cease from preaching in gowns and to wear the surplice throughout the service. The Bishop seems to have thought the black gown an illegal vestment, and many people now-a-days are of this opinion. Quite recently, however, a learned judge in the Court of Appeal has characterised the opinion as absurd, and declared that, in preaching, a clergyman is at liberty to discard the surplice for the gown. Fifty years ago the surplice in the pulpit was regarded as the mark of a Puseyite, and in many parishes serious disturbances were caused when it was first used as a preaching vestment. But this matter of "clergymen's clothes," as Dean Stanley once described it in the Lower House of Convocation, has long since included many other articles than black gowns, and white surplices. Coloured stoles are now quite common, and special Eucharistic garments are in use in many churches. How far these vestments are legal may be doubted; some of them were condemned in a judgment of the Privy Council, but there is reason for believing the judges were not altogether satisfied with the decision. The use of coloured stoles and vestments was probably stimulated by an exhibition of them at York during the Church Congress in 1866, but they had been worn in a few places somewhat earlier. On their first introduction they were never seen in the presence of a Bishop, and when an attempt was made by several clergymen to wear coloured stoles at the consecration of a London church in Bishop Tait's time, he insisted upon the removal of "those ribbons" before he began the service The Eucharistic vestments—a chasuble for the priest who celebrates the Communion, the dalmatic and tunic worn by the deacon and sub-deacon, who read the gospel and epistle respectively—are now common in most Ritualist churches, and there are other vestments which we need not name. Eucharistic vestments are often made of rich material, of colours varying with the course of the ecclesiastical year, and are sometimes ornamented with precious stones and gold. They have long been used in the Roman church, possibly from very early times, and represent the original costumes of Rome and the East in the first centuries of our era.

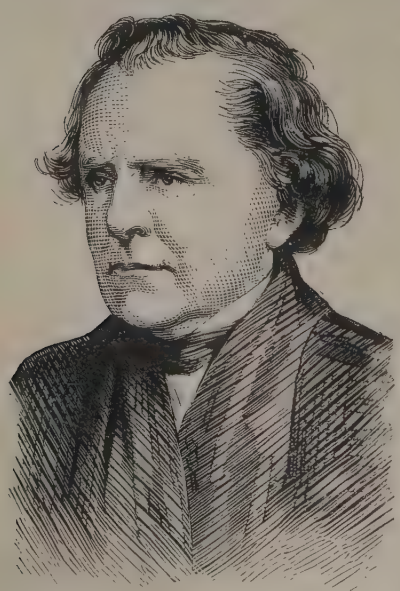
A. P. STANLEY.

* Many excellent people have called the surplice a "popish rag," and cling to the black gown as a symbol of Protestantism. The surplice, however, is not a priestly garment, but in the Church of Rome is worn by everybody connected with Divine Service, even by the organ blower. The Geneva gown is, however, a Popish vestment, being copied from the black gown of the Benedictine order, which it follows exactly in cut though differing in material.

In many Ritualistic churches the music is almost exclusively Gregorian, and this is another reversion to ancient practice. It is not necessary to inquire into the comparative merits of Gregorian and Anglican music, or to ask which is the more suitable for Christian worship. The late Bishop Wilberforce had, however, very decided views upon the subject. "When I hear Gregorian music," he said, "I always feel as if I should like to lie down on my stomach and howl."

Auricular confession and consequent absolution by the priest are another result of the Oxford Movement, and their introduction has not unnaturally given rise to very bitter controversy. We need not accept the wild stories promulgated by strong Protestants about the abuses of the confessional in the Roman and Anglican churches. The Church of Rome specially trains priests for this solemn duty, but such training is not officially recognised in the Church of England, and it may well have happened that penitents, finding their Anglican confessor unskilful in his work, have seceded to Rome. Dr. Pusey was probably the first of the leaders of the movement who regularly heard confessions, but the practice of regular confession has been, and is, strongly condemned by many High Churchmen as weakening the conscience and the responsibility of the penitent; as totally opposed to English modesty and reserve, and as bad, in many ways, for the clergy themselves.

Sisterhoods, now so numerous and so useful to the sick and poor, are another outcome of the movement. They have, of course, existed for centuries in the Roman church, and were common in our own land before the Reformation. In Germany a Deaconesses Institution (Protestant) was founded in 1836 by Pastor Fliedner, at Kaiserswerth on the Rhine, and from Kaiserswerth these excellent institutions have extended their influence far and wide. The first modern English sisterhood was established in 1845 by Dr. Pusey, with the assistance of Lord John Manners (now Duke of Rutland) and others, at Albany Street, Regent's Park, and was continued for ten years. In the meantime Miss Sellon had started a sisterhood at Plymouth in 1849, another had been begun at Clewer, near Windsor, by the Rev. T. T. Carter; the East Grinstead sisterhood of St. Margaret's was established by Dr. Neale in 1854, and at the present time they are working in nearly all the large towns and in every diocese in England. They created at first considerable alarm in the minds of the timid, and were bitterly attacked by a portion of the so-called religious press. The sisters themselves could scarcely appear in the streets without being assailed by shameful language and sometimes they were actually attacked, but to the great benefit of the poor and the outcast they survived their early difficulties, and now form numerous and flourishing communities. The Evangelicals have now learnt that sisterhoods are not necessarily dangerous to the faith, and have established Deaconesses Institutions, which rival in usefulness the older sisterhoods; and in late years sisterhoods are not unknown among the Wesleyan Methodists and other Nonconformist bodies.



BISHOP WILBERFORCE.

Bishop Wilberforce is generally and very rightly credited with the success that has attended the establishment of "missions" in the Church of England. He cannot be included among the Tractarians or the followers of Dr. Pusey, but it would be unfair to deny that missions, now common to all parties in the Anglican Communion, are among the effects of the Oxford Movement. It was Bishop Wilberforce's practice, continued for many years in the diocese of Oxford, to hold an ordination, a confirmation, frequent communions, and to arrange for the delivery of a course of sermons by specially selected preachers in some important town in order to show the power and fulness of church work; these missions drew large congregations and did much real good. They are common enough now and their novelty has worn off, but at first they encountered opposition, and were coldly regarded by many who did not actively oppose them. After one of his earlier missions, an innkeeper applied to Bishop Wilberforce for compensation because the candidates did not, as had formerly been the custom, attend a ball at his inn after they had been confirmed. The story enables us to appreciate the thoroughness of Bishop Wilberforce's work.

Brighter services, and shorter sermons, greater attention to the details of worship, churches better kept, and often left open for private prayer during the day, are also results of the movement, and many of these improvements are not confined to the Anglican Church but have extended to other communities.

The Revival of Convocation in 1852 is also, in a large degree, due to the Oxford Movement. The Ancient Convocation of the bishops and clergy of the Church of England had been practically silenced since 1717, when the Lower House thought fit to denounce the dangerous tenets of a sermon on toleration, preached by Bishop Hoadley. The Houses were allowed to meet formally at the beginning of a Parliament, but could only vote an address to the Crown, and separate. However true it may be, as Hallam observes in dealing with the events of 1717, that "ecclesiastical assemblies have in all ages and in all countries been mischievous where they have been powerful,"* and whatever weight may attach to the statement of a High Church Tory like Clarendon, that, "of all mankind none form so bad an estimate of human affairs as churchmen," it was an anomaly that while some communities held their annual assemblies and their conferences, the bishops and clergy of the Church of England were debarred by the action of the Crown from exercising their ancient privileges of discussing in Convocation the affairs of their church. A society for the Revival of Convocation was established in London in 1850, and in the following year the subject was discussed in the House of Lords, and many of the speakers asserted the desirability of the proposed revival. At the formal meeting of the Convocation of Canterbury in February, 1852, Bishop Wilberforce moved a petition to the Crown for license to discusss the Clergy Discipline Bill, but it was pointed out by the Vicar-General that such a course would be illegal, and the Archbishop prorogued Convocation.

Some High Churchmen then took the opinion of three eminent lawyers who advised that when Convocation had been duly convened, business might be transacted though new canons could not be promulged without license from the crown. When, therefore, the New Convocation met in St. Paul's Cathedral on November 5th, 1852, it was not prorogued after a few formalities had been observed, but met again in the following week at Westminster, when the two Houses, sitting separately in accordance with precedent, discussed a number of questions connected with the welfare of the Church of England.

* Hallam's History of England, Ch. XVI.

The silence of one hundred and thirty-five years was thus broken. The Convocation of the province of York did not follow the example of the Southern province for three or four years. At the present day the Convocation of both provinces meets as regularly as Parliament itself.

ST. PAUL'S CATHEDRAL.

CHAPTER XXVII.

WARS.

AFGHANISTAN, INDIA, AND CHINA.

AFGHANISTAN, north-west of India, through which the chief ways pass that lead from Persia to the Indian frontier—"the land of transition between Eastern and Western Asia"—is bounded, as the geography books say, on the east by Cashmere and the Punjab, on the south by Beloochistan, on the west by the Persian province of Khorasan, and on the north by Bokhara and Russian Turkistan. There are numerous routes between Afghanistan (*i.e.*, "the land of the Afghans") and India; among the best known being the famous Khyber Pass, by which the river Cabul enters the Punjab, the Gomul Pass, also leading to the Punjab, and the Bolan Pass on the south, through which the route passes to Scinde. The chief towns are Cabul (the capital) Candahar, Ghuznee, and Herat.

THE KHYBER PASS.

Afghanistan is a very mountainous country, some of the ranges on the north-east rising from 18,000 to 25,000 feet; others have lofty, bare, and uninhabited table-lands, and all are surrounded by innumerable ravines and deep valleys. The configuration of the country explains many of the difficulties our soldiers met with there. The people, are proud, cruel, vengeful, and restless, and much given to war and plunder. Their language is closely allied to the Persian and their religion is Mahommedan of the Sunnite Sect.

Upon Herat, "the key of India" (a city considered essential to British interests, seeing that so many of the roads leading on India converge within the limits of its territory) the Shah of Persia set longing eyes. Until the middle of the eighteenth century it had belonged to Persia, and in 1833 the Shah boldly made an attack upon it, with a view to its recovery, but was repulsed. In 1837 the attack was renewed, this time at the instigation of the Czar of Russia, whose agents had won over the Persians to his side.

Dost Mahomed was then upon the throne of Cabul, and his supremacy was nominally recognised by all the great Afghan chieftains. He was a man of fine ability, of graceful person, and as unscrupulous as he was brave. To obtain his adhesion to British interests, Lord Auckland, who had succeeded Lord William Bentinck as

Governor-General of India, sent an embassy to Cabul for the purpose of making a commercial treaty, which might open the markets of Central Asia to British manufactures. Captain Alexander Burnes * to whom this mission was entrusted, found Herat besieged by the Persians, assisted by Russian officers, and the commercial mission was at once changed to a political legation. Dost Mahomed must be won over; alliance with Russia would mean opening a path for her towards the Indian territory she coveted, and the Afghan ruler was approached to stem the tide of Russian influence. But he was smarting under the loss of Peshawur, of which he had been despoiled by the King of Lahore (Runjeet Singh), and he demanded as the price of his adhesion that the territory of Peshawur should be restored to him.

THE BOLAN PASS.

While Burnes was at Cabul a messenger arrived with overtures from the Russian Emperor, who was profuse in promises to grant everything the Dost was most anxious to obtain. He began at once to waver, and at last manifested a disposition so hostile to British interests that Lord Auckland recalled his envoy, and came to the unwarrantable conclusion to depose Dost Mahomed and set up on the throne of Cabul Shah Soojah, his rival, the banished Suddoyze King, who for the past twenty years had been a pensioner on British bounty.

It was a task both dangerous and unnecessary, for the Sikh kingdom of the Punjab, and the lands of the Ameers of Scinde, lay between the British Indian frontier and Afghanistan. Moreover, the Dost was the favourite of the majority in the country, while for Shah Soojah there was not anywhere the least enthusiasm. But the task was more than dangerous and unnecessary; it was as unjust as it was impolitic to interfere with the internal affairs of Afghanistan, and when a proclamation of war was issued from Simla in 1838, all the most experienced Indian politicians concurred in the opinion that the expedition must end in failure, while at home the Duke of Wellington gave his most emphatic disapproval of the undertaking. As we shall see, the policy of Lord Auckland brought about the greatest disasters that had ever befallen British arms in the East.

The Russo-Persian siege of Herat, which it was the intention of Lord Auckland in the first place to raise, ended in failure and retreat, and "with the departure of the Persian troops," says Mr. Archibald Forbes, "had gone also the sole legitimate object of the

* See page 264.

expedition ; there remained but a project of wanton aggression and usurpation . . . an aggression destitute even of pretext." Nevertheless, on December 10th, 1838, Sir John Keane (with Sir Willoughby Cotton in command of the Bengal Division) started with ten thousand men, and thirty-eight thousand undisciplined camp-followers, on the long march, which did not terminate at Cabul until August 6th, 1839. In the depth of the winter months he found himself in the desert leading towards the Bolan Pass, with provisions running so short that only half rations could be served out. The Bolan Pass was entered and traversed with safety, although a large number of horses and camels were lost, and on the 26th of March Quettah was reached, where it was anticipated ample supplies would be found. But as these failed, and starvation was staring the army in the face, they pushed on, though suffering from great privations, to Candahar.

KESSAKHANI BAZAAR, PESHAWUR.

At Candahar, which was easily captured, Sir John Keane assumed the command of the whole army, and here the main body was encamped from the beginning of May until the end of June. Here, too, Shah Soojah went through a solemn ceremony of "recognition," without exciting any enthusiasm, except from his immediate followers, and was established in his precarious sovereignty.

On the 27th of June, the whole army, under the command of Keane, advanced (on half rations) towards Cabul, and encountered no opposition to its progress until it reached the ancient fortress of Ghuznee, which had been repaired and strengthened while the army had been idle at Candahar. Instead of surrendering, as had been expected, every provision was made for a vigorous defence. Unfortunately, Sir John had left his siege train behind him at Candahar, contrary to the advice of Henry Havelock (afterwards the famous hero of the Indian Mutiny), and he found to his dismay

that it was impossible either to breach the walls or to carry the fort by mining or escalade. Then it came to the knowledge of Captain Thomson, of the Bengal Engineers, that the Cabul gate was the only gate that had not been recently walled and repaired, and he advised that it should be blown up. It was a most hazardous undertaking, and could only be effected by the greatest skill and courage. Nevertheless the fate of the expedition hung upon the attempt, and one night, while a pretended attack was being made on a gate in an opposite direction, twelve bags, containing 900 lbs. weight of gunpowder, were piled against the Cabul gate. Young Lieutenant Durand, of the Bengal Engineers, led the explosion party and ignited the quick match. The powder exploded, "a column of black smoke arose, and down with a crash came heavy masses of masonry and shivered beams in awful ruin and confusion. Then the bugle sounded the advance, and Colonel Dennie, of the 13th Light Infantry, at the head of his stormers, pushed forward through the smoke and dust of the aperture, and soon the bayonets of

INTERIOR OF THE CITADEL, CANDAHAR.

his Light Companies were crossing the swords of the enemy, who had rushed down to the point of attack. A few moments of darkness and confusion, and then the foremost soldiers caught a glimpse of the morning sky, and, pushing gallantly on, were soon established in the fortress."

The conflict, though severe, was not of long duration, and the gallant little band, inspired by their daring leader, whose commanding figure was seen ever in advance, and whose voice cheered them on to the attack, forced their way along, overbearing all resistance, and at length three hearty, animating cheers, so loud and clear that they were heard through the general camp, announced to their comrades below the triumphant issue of the contest.

General Sale led on the main column; a desperate fight ensued; but in three hours from the blowing up of the gate, the British standard was flying over the citadel.

When the news of this victory reached the followers of Dost Mahomed they became so dispirited that they refused to march against the English, and the unfortunate chief, forsaken in the hour of his greatest need, abandoned his throne and capital and fine

park of artillery, and fled with six hundred horsemen, an exile and fugitive, while his son, Akbar Khan, covered his retreat. Sir John Keane now moved forward with his forces, and on the 8th of August the British entered Cabul, the vacated capital, and with much pomp and ceremony placed Shah Soojah upon the throne.

Everything at length seemed to have terminated satisfactorily; the main army returned to India, leaving eight thousand men, British and Sepoys, to secure Shah Soojah upon the throne. Sir William Macnaghten was left in Cabul as envoy, and Sir Alexander Burnes, as his assistant, both having been made baronets. Sir John Keane returned to England, and was raised to the peerage as Baron Keane of Ghuznee, and Lord Auckland was created an Earl. There were high times at Cabul, everything seemed to wear a settled aspect; Lady Sale, Lady Macnaghten, and other English ladies joined their husbands, and all the functions of high life were celebrated, including races and cricket matches, concerts and dramatic entertainments, sports and pastimes. But the English dwelt in a false security; a storm was brewing which was soon to burst with terrible force. Day by day rumours were heard of insurrection and strife, then it became known that Dost Mahomed was renewing the war, and skirmishes of a desperate nature were taking place, which began to create alarm among the English. Unexpectedly their anxiety was relieved by Dost Mahomed himself, who voluntarily came into Cabul, and gave up his sword to the English envoy. He was sent under an escort to British territory, where he was honourably treated, and a pension allowed him.

THE OLD CITADEL FROM THE CITY. HERAT.

The Government of Shah Soojah was anything but popular, disaffection to him and hatred to the British power were becoming intensified from day to day; there were risings in various parts of the country, and everywhere the political horizon was darkened. At this juncture the command of the troops was placed in the hands of General Elphinstone, who had been appointed by Lord Auckland to succeed Sir Willoughby Cotton. A more unfit man for the post could not have been found; he knew nothing of Indian warfare, nothing of the character of the Afghans, and although doubtless a gallant soldier, he was suffering so acutely from gout and rheumatism that he had no outlet for any zeal he might have wished to show. Curious to relate the cantonments in which the main body of the troops were lodged were on low ground, open to attack from all the hills

and forts around, while the commissariat supplies were kept in a small fort *beyond* the cantonments. One morning in September, 1841, it was found that the whole neighbourhood was swarming with depredatory rebels, and on the 2nd of November, the storm that had been long threatening, burst. The Afghans had thrown away all reserve and were in open insurrection in the very heart of the city, and firing was going on in the streets. Before the pressing danger was realised by the weak and incompetent General Elphinstone an angry mob gathered round the house of Sir Alexander Burnes; a shot was fired and his friend Lieutenant William Broadfoot fell dead, struck by a bullet in the chest. Then the insurgents set fire to the stables, and poured into the garden, clamouring for the life of the envoy, and crying "Come down into the garden." At this moment a Cashmerian came to him and swore by the Koran that if he and his brother, Lieutenant Burnes, would confide themselves to him he would lead them to a place of safety. There was no other hope of escape, and they consented; but hardly had they stepped into the garden, disguised in native clothes, when the cowardly wretch shouted "This is Sekunder Burnes!" and the next instant the furious mob fell upon them and the brothers were hacked to pieces by Afghan knives.

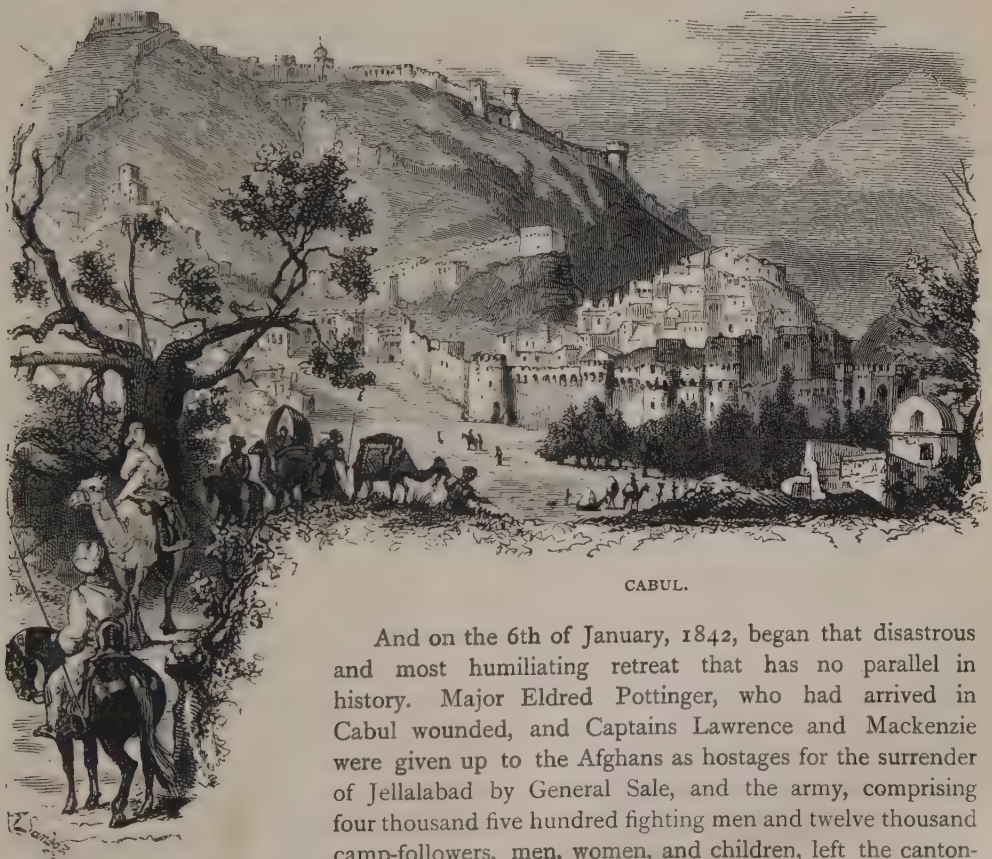
The insurrection did not stop here; houses were plundered, helpless men, women and children were slaughtered, the fort in which the provisions for the troops were stored, fell into the hands of the enemy, and poor, gouty General Elphinstone, nervous and weak, was unable to act and unwilling to allow anyone to act for him. One of the bravest men to be found in any army was Brigadier Shelton, the only one alive to the terrible situation, and he was not, for some time, permitted to do his best. Elphinstone's one idea was negociation, and at that moment negociation was impossible.

Meanwhile, the insurrection went on apace, and, owing to the abandonment of the Commissariat fort, there was danger of starvation for the British. Manfully and almost single-handed Brigadier Shelton tried manœuvre after manœuvre to retrieve the position. With iron nerve and dauntless courage he strove to capture the forts which were so perilously near the cantonments, but the British musketeers wavered at the cry of 'Cavalry!' and forgetting all sense of honour and country, fled in cowardly panic. Yet where the fire was hottest Shelton stood, 'unshaken by the danger that assailed him and shamed the disordered crowd of men, no longer soldiers.' Again and again he led forlorn hopes, and again and again he was thwarted; first by the indecision of the Commander until he was 'disgusted with his vacillation,' and then by the disgraceful conduct of the panic-stricken troops.

Elphinstone's one idea, as we have said, was negociation; he had lost heart and continued to press on Macnaghten the 'hopelessness of further resistance.' The opportunity, as it was thought, for negociation soon came. Akbar Khan, the son of the deposed Dost Mahomed, arrived in Cabul, and invited the envoy and leading officers to a conference. Full of forebodings, Macnaghten, Lawrence, Trevor, and Mackenzie, advanced to the place of rendezvous and were met by Akbar Khan and his party. When they had seated themselves a number of Afghans, armed to the teeth, closed round. "Lawrence and Mackenzie pointed out this environment to some of the chiefs who affected to drive off the intruders with their whips; but Akbar observed that it did not matter, as they 'were all in the secret.' 'Suddenly' wrote Mackenzie, 'I heard Akbar call out 'Begeer! begeer! (seize! seize!) and turning round, I saw him grasp the envoy's left hand with an expression on his face of the most diabolical ferocity. I think it was Sultan Jan who laid hold of the envoy's right hand. They dragged him in a stooping posture down the hillock, the only words I heard poor Sir William utter being

'Az barae Khooda' ('For God's sake'). I saw his face, however, and it was full of horror and astonishment.' Neither Mackenzie nor Lawrence, the surviving companions of the envoy, witnessed the actual end. "Whether," writes Kaye, "he died on the spot or whether he was slain by the infuriated Ghazees is not very clearly known, but the fanatics threw themselves on the prostrate body and hacked it with their knives." There is no doubt that the head of the unfortunate Macnaghten was paraded in triumph through the streets of Cabul, and that the mangled trunk, after being dragged about the city, was hung up in the great bazaar. Of the three officers who accompanied the envoy to the conference, Trevor was massacred, and Lawrence and Mackenzie were saved with difficulty by friendly chiefs, and brought into the city.*

The massacre took place on the 23rd of December, 1841. Not a hand was raised, nor was a gun fired to avenge the deaths, but in the course of a few days a Council of War was held and a treaty made with Akbar Khan, by which it was agreed to leave all the guns behind except six, to relinquish all the treasure, to give up three officers as hostages, and to pay 40,000 rupees in bills drawn upon India but negociable on the spot by Hindu bankers. In return for these humiliating concessions Akbar Khan guaranteed to conduct the army in safety to Jellalabad, then held by General Sale, on the Afghan side of the Khyber Pass, ninety miles only from Cabul.



CABUL.

And on the 6th of January, 1842, began that disastrous and most humiliating retreat that has no parallel in history. Major Eldred Pottinger, who had arrived in Cabul wounded, and Captains Lawrence and Mackenzie were given up to the Afghans as hostages for the surrender of Jellalabad by General Sale, and the army, comprising four thousand five hundred fighting men and twelve thousand camp-followers, men, women, and children, left the cantonments, and entered the fatal Khoord-Cabul Pass—to them the dark valley of the Shadow of Death. Scarcely had they left Cabul when they were followed by vast hordes of

* "The Afghan Wars," by Archibald Forbes.

infuriated Afghans, who rent the air with their yells of triumph. Ill-clad, almost starving, with snow a foot deep upon the ground, many perished in the first day's march, and all were in the power of the treacherous Akbar Khan, who had outwitted the authorities, and was enclosing the whole mass of people in a fatal net. So exhausted were they by hunger, cold, and terror, that on the morning of the third day they had only covered ten of the ninety miles that lay before them. Every height was lined with furious mountain Ghilzies, who shot down the unresisting fugitives as they dragged on in helpless disorder, and when they grew weaker the furious hillmen laid aside their matchlocks and butchered the fugitives by the score with their long deadly knives. Lady Sale, whose "Journal" gives a complete record of the dreadful march, and is more exciting than any sensational novel, received a bullet in her arm and three more through her dress. "The massacre," says Kaye,* "was fearful in this Khoord-Cabul Pass. Three thousand men are said to have fallen under the fire of the enemy, or to have dropped down, paralysed and exhausted, to be slaughtered by the Afghan knives. And amidst this fearful scene of carnage, through a shower of matchlock balls, rode English ladies on horseback or in camel-panniers, sometimes vainly endeavouring to keep their children beneath their eyes and losing them in the confusion and bewilderment of the desolating march."

On the 9th, Akbar Khan offered to protect the ladies if they should be entrusted to him, with their husbands as hostages, and as there seemed to be no other chance of preserving their lives this was agreed to, and Lady Sale, Lady Macnaghten, and six other ladies, with their husbands, were handed over to his tender mercies. Then the miserable army resumed its march. Obstacle after obstacle was placed in its way, the murderous attacks of the Afghans were incessant, urged on by Akbar Khan, who appeared on the scene with a body of six hundred horsemen. The frosts increased with unusual severity, starvation was doing its deadly work, and in a short time three-fourths of the sixteen thousand men had perished. General Elphinstone and Brigadier Shelton were given as hostages into the hands of the Sirdar; only one hope was left to the survivors, and that was to push on as rapidly as they could drag their weary limbs through the Jugdulluk Pass, travelling all through the night to gain a march in advance of the enemy. To their horror they found, when within two miles of Jugdulluk, that barriers had been thrown across the road. The enemy had circumvented them, and were waiting their approach. A fearful struggle, a horrible massacre, ensued, and the remnant of the British Army was slaughtered in cold blood. One man only, out of the sixteen thousand who left Cabul, escaped to tell the story of the awful tragedy.

While all this was happening, General Sale, with another part of the British army by which Afghan had been occupied, was at Jellalabad in a perilous position, surrounded by a hostile population anxious to drive him and his force into the Khyber Pass and so complete the work of annihilation. One day, under a flag of truce, a despatch written by General Elphinstone was handed to him, summoning him to evacuate Jellalabad and withdraw at once to Peshawur. It was the poor old general's agreement, that had been extorted from him by the treacherous Akbar Khan, that Jellalabad should be abandoned! General Sale, who of course knew nothing of the terrible tragedy that had occurred, called a council of war, and by an act of prompt and splendid disobedience resolved "that it would not be prudent to act upon such a document, and that the garrison would therefore remain where it was until further orders." That resolution saved Sale's army from the total destruction that awaited it.

*Sir J. W. Kaye's "History of the War in Afghanistan."

Five days later a sentry on the walls of Jellalabad saw a solitary white man clinging wearily to the neck of a wretched half-starved pony that could hardly drag him along. It was Dr. Brydon, a medical man, the sole survivor of the sixteen thousand that had marched out of Cabul only a week before! "The curious eye will search through history or fiction in vain for any picture more thrilling with the suggestions of an awful catastrophe than that of this solitary survivor, faint and reeling on his jaded horse, as he appeared under the walls of Jellalabad, to bear the tidings of our Thermopylæ of pain and shame."*

The recital of his story filled his hearers with the deepest horror, grief, and indignation, and a determination to avenge the cruel massacre was at once arrived at. Without a moment's delay every preparation was made for the defence of Jellalabad, as it was believed that the enemy was following close on Dr. Brydon's track. Foraging parties were sent out to capture sheep and cattle, and the fortifications were repaired and strengthened under the direction of the gallant and heroic Captain George Broadfoot. Scarcely had this been effected when a series of earthquakes shook them down, and made

JELLALABAD.

breaches in the walls more accessible than any found there when the troops first took possession. The damage was soon repaired, however, but as the weeks went by the state of the garrison became critical, and provisions ran short, while, about six miles from the walls on the further side of the river, the white tents of Akbar Khan were in view.

In one of the many battles which the force had to fight, Colonel Dennie, the hero of Ghuznee, was slain, just as he had gained an important and decisive victory, and had driven the Afghans headlong into the river. The victory could not have been more complete; the enemy in open field were dislodged from every point of their position: camp, baggage, artillery, horses, standards, and arms of every kind, were captured, together with abundant ammunition and provisions, and Akbar Khan fled with the wreck of his army of six thousand men towards Cabul, while the loss to the British amounted to only ten killed and fifty wounded.

Meanwhile, important events had been going on elsewhere. Lord Auckland had been removed from power; Lord Ellenborough had been appointed Governor-General in his stead, and General Pollock, with a large army, was on his way to the relief of Sale at Jellalabad, while General Nott, with a body of ten thousand men, was at Candahar.

Nine days after the flight of Akbar Khan, General Pollock's army arrived at

* History of our own Times. Justin McCarthy, M.P.

Jellalabad; on the 20th of August the "avengers" went forth, and summary was the punishment they inflicted. In the fatal Passes of Jugdulluk and Khoord-Cabul, the sight of the bleached bones of their unhappy countrymen stimulated them to deeds of terrible daring, and the Ghilzies, who sought to oppose their advance, were driven like sheep from hill to hill and totally discomfited. In the Valley of Tezeen, where so many had fallen, Akbar Khan who had not fled far from the neighbourhood, came again upon the scene and made his last stand. But he could not resist the advance of the troops scattering all before them, or the steady fire, which mowed them down as grass. "The finest sight of the day was Captain Broadfoot and the diminutive Ghoorkas of his corps of Sappers pursuing the enemy from crag to crag, and climbing heights which appeared inaccessible, until they stood on the highest point of the Hoft Kotul, and were enabled to look down on the enemy they had chased. Havelock was in his element, and was described by those who were in the field, as present wherever the fire was hottest and the resistance most resolute. The enemy fought not only with valour, but with the energy of despair, but nothing could withstand the onslaught of our troops."

General Nott, having completely defeated the Afghans at Candahar, resolved to co-operate with General Pollock as he forced his way through the defiles intervening between Jellalabad and Cabul. On his march Nott encountered an Afghan army twice as numerous as his own, but which he nevertheless completely routed. He then took Ghuznee and destroyed its fortifications, and in his advance from this place drove another body of twelve thousand Afghans from strong positions which they occupied.

On the 15th of September, 1842, General Pollock's force entered Cabul in triumph, followed two days later by that of General Nott.

To avenge the death of Macnaghten, General Pollock ordered the destruction of the great bazaar of Cabul where the head of the unfortunate envoy had been exhibited; the prisoners, including the heroic Lady Sale, who had been retained by Akbar Khan as hostages, were all given back with the exception of poor General Elphinstone, who was harried to death by removal from fort to fort, when his ailments were thick upon him; Akbar Khan fled after his great defeat at Tezeen and was heard of no more. Shah Soojah, the puppet king, who was not wanted, and whose arbitrary appointment to the throne of Cabul was the beginning of all the trouble, was assassinated by his people soon after the Elphinstone retreat; Dost Mahomed returned to the rulership of Cabul from which we had dethroned him, and retained it until his death in 1863; and so, after four years of unparalleled trial and disaster everything was restored to the condition in which we found it, except that there were so many brave Englishmen sleeping in bloody graves, and that the Afghans had been shown the power and the weakness of the British.

The tragic war had one farcical incident. Lord Ellenborough had instructed General Nott when at Ghuznee to carry away from the tomb of Sultan Mahmoud, in the neighbourhood of the conquered city, the supposititious gates of Somnauth, a once famous Hindu shrine. This was done, and, when officially communicating to the different governments and to the people of India the great achievements of the British arms, he indulged in the following bombastic and coxcombical utterance:—

"To all the Princes and Chiefs, and People of India.

My Brothers and my Friends,

Our victorious army bears the gates of the temple of Somnauth in triumph from Afghanistan, and the despoiled tomb of Sultan Mahmoud looks upon the ruins of Ghuznee. The insult of eight hundred years is at last avenged; the gates of the temple of Somnauth, so long the memorial of your humiliation, are become the proudest record

of your national glory, the proof of your superiority in arms over the nations beyond the Indus. To you, Princes and Chiefs of Sirhind, of Rajwanah, of Malwa, and Ghuzerat, I shall commit this glorious trophy of successful war. You will yourselves, with all honour, transmit the gates of sandal wood through your respective territories to the restored* temple of Somnauth. The Chiefs of Sirhind shall be informed at what time our victorious army will first deliver the gates of the temple into their guardianship at the foot of the Sutlej."

"No words of pompous man," says a historian, "could possibly have put together greater absurdities. The 'brothers and friends' were Mahometans and Hindoos, who were about as likely to agree as to the effect of these symbols of triumph as a Fenian and an Orangeman would be to fraternise in a toast 'to the glorious, pious, and immortal memory.' To the Mahometans the triumph of Lord Ellenborough was simply an insult. To the Hindoos the offer was ridiculous, for the temple of Somnauth was in ruins, and the ground it covered was trodden by Mahometans. To finish the absurdity, the gates proved not to be genuine relics at all."

In England this extraordinary State paper was regarded as a positive homage to the idolatry of the people Lord Ellenborough was appointed to govern, and a virtual denial of Christianity.

SCINDE.

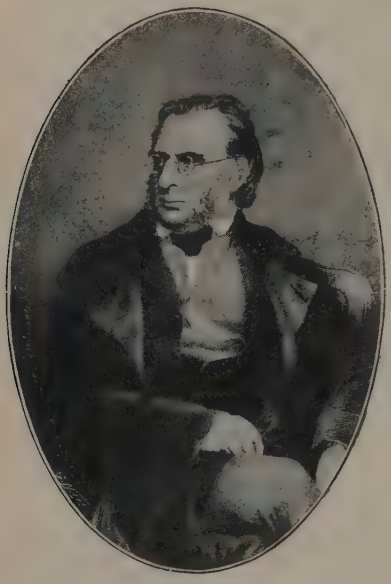
Shortly after the close of the Afghan War misunderstandings arose with the Ameers of Scinde, which led to the British invasion of their territory—a vast district comprising about 50,000 square miles—the "unhappy valley" of the Lower Indus—lying along the north-west frontier of our Indian empire. From the beginning of the century it had been ruled by a family of princes known as "Ameers," and the Government had become a wholly unchecked military depotism, upheld by a feudal soldiery.

Our treaty with the Ameers in 1820 had declared that the two contracting powers "mutually bound themselves from generation to generation never to look with the eye of covetousness on the possessions of each other," and much more to a similar effect. But disputes arose in connection with the Afghan War and the free passage of the Indus, intensified when the fort of Kurrachee was occupied by the British, and, in defiance of a previous treaty, a passage was forced up the river for the conveyance of military stores. Other demands of the British, involving the surrender of national independence in Scinde, were made in 1842, and in the following year Sir Charles Napier—who expressed his disapproval of the policy of the Government—was nevertheless sent to carry out its instructions, quite irrespective of the solemn promise "never to look with eyes of covetousness on the possessions of the Ameers of Scinde." It was said that they had broken faith with us, that they had been in communication with our enemies, that they had failed in paying their tribute money, and that one of their number had acted treacherously towards us.

Sir Charles James Napier, who had won laurels in the Peninsular War, was the foremost of a noble family, a heroic, enthusiastic, and talented man, and as eccentric and conceited an officer as ever drew sword, and he performed the evil work that had been committed to him well. He led an eight-days' march through the burning desert which divided Scinde from British territory, blew up the fortress of Emaun Ghur, and on the 17th of February, 1843, his 2,500 soldiers won the battle of Meeanee on the Indus, north of Haiderabad, against an overwhelming force of 35,000. "Under a heavy fire," he said to his troops, "you reached the bank of the river, where a hurl of shields, Scindian

* It was a crumbling ruin.

capped and turbaned heads, and flashing scimitars spread as a sea before you, 35,000 valiant Baluchees threatening you with destruction! Then the hostile armies closed and clashed together The dark chivalry of India burst as a thundercloud, and charging into the dry bed of the river drove the foe before them! But the British shout of the battle was echoed along the line. Lines of levelled charging bayonets gleamed through the smoke, and the well-fought field was your own!"*



SIR CHARLES NAPIER (OF SCINDE).

A million sterling in treasure was seized, and the six Ameers were thrown into prison.

Napier won another victory at Dubba, took Haiderabad, the capital, and made himself master of the whole country. Lord Ellenborough then annexed Scinde to the Bombay Presidency and put it under the rule of its conqueror. Napier, as its first commissioner, laid the basis of its future prosperity by setting vigorously to work to improve its condition, and by introducing many judicious reforms. After a few years of his rule, Scinde had a surplus of grain over the supply of its own wants and became an exporter, the people took up honest pursuits, population increased, and a career of secure and prosperous industry was entered upon. So, by a happy coincidence, good came out of evil.

Disapproval of our high-handed proceedings was, however, loudly expressed in many quarters at home. Sir Henry Pottinger denounced them in the press as "the most unprincipled and disgraceful that had ever stamped the annals of our empire in India," while Lord Ashley in bringing forward a motion for an address to the Crown, praying that Her Majesty would direct the immediate restoration of the Ameers of Scinde to liberty, and the enjoyment of their estates, said "You have torn them from their thrones, reduced them to the level of your meanest dependants, seized their dominions, incarcerated their persons, plundered their houses, and exposed them to various forms of privation and insult." To a strong indictment against the Indian Government, Sir Robert Peel, who was then Prime Minister, could only base its defence on the general principle that "uncivilised nations were made to be conquered." "I am afraid," he said, "there is some great principle at work wherever civilisation and refinement come in contact with barbarism, which makes it impossible to apply the rules observed amongst more advanced nations." He added that the liberation of the Ameers was incompatible with the peace of India, but that they would be removed to a greater distance where less restraint would be necessary, and £24,000 a year would be devoted to their maintenance and service.

THE SIKHS.

The war against Scinde was followed, at the end of 1845, by war against the Sikhs, the most formidable foes our armies had yet encountered in the East. They occupied the country north-east of Scinde, called the Punjab, or, "the land of the five rivers," all of which flow into the Indus. They had sprung from a Hindu sect, and had taken the

* Sir C. J. Napier is said to have been the first General to mention private soldiers by name in his dispatches. This is a mark of progress in the life of a century.

country from the Afghans about forty years before. Their ruler, Runjeet Singh, "the lion of the Punjab," who had brought the Sikh confederacy into a well-ordered despotism, with a strong army of enthusiastic devotees, had always been on good terms with the British, but on his death in 1839 a state of anarchy ensued, which ended in the invasion of our territories. The Sikhs had been well drilled by French officers and had a powerful artillery, and in December, 1845, they crossed the river Sutlej, the boundary between the Punjab and British territory, and invested Ferozepore. Sir Hugh Gough (afterwards Lord Gough) and Sir Henry (afterwards Lord) Hardinge (a Peninsular veteran who had succeeded Lord Ellenborough in the Governor-Generalship) marched against them. The first battle, a desperate struggle, was fought on December 18th at Moodkee, south-east of Lahore, and the Sikhs received a severe defeat. Sir Robert Sale, the heroic defender of Jellalabad in the war against the Afghans, fell in this action. A few days later Gough and Hardinge again defeated the Sikhs at Ferozeshah, north-west of Moodkee, which was stormed with great loss, and took their camp. In January, 1846, at Aliwal, north-east of Moodkee, Sir Harry Smith, who had taken part in every battle save one in the Peninsular War, encountered and overthrew the enemy, after they had again crossed the Sutlej and threatened our frontier fortress, Loodiana. In February, Sir Harry Smith joined forces with Gough, his chief, and the united armies stormed and carried the strongly entrenched camp of the Sikhs at Sobraon, north-west of Aliwal. There was probably never a harder fought battle in India, and seldom had the British so nearly an equality of numbers as with their brave and gallant enemy; but the Sikhs were disastrously beaten. With the loss of their cannon, which was their chief dependence, they fled in a confused mass to the Sutlej, and attempted to ford it. In their exposed condition they were assailed by a heavy fire of artillery, which mowed down whole ranks, and in the hurry to escape, thousands fell and were drowned in the river. Rarely has there been so complete a victory; the Sikh army was virtually annihilated.

Sir Henry Hardinge then marched on their capital, Lahore, and a treaty of peace was made. A frontier strip of territory was ceded to us, and the northern Sikh provinces, including Cashmere, were made into a new State. Three years later, however, war again broke out. The Sikhs were defeated at Chillianwallah and Goojerat, and the Punjab was annexed, as part of the British Empire, in 1849.

CHINA.—THE OPIUM WAR.

The opium trade had its origin in the "enterprise" of certain civil servants of the East India Company. They cultivated the noxious drug and sold it, greatly to the financial advantage of Dutch traders and others who readily found a market for it. In 1773, as the trade was becoming a big thing, the Company took it into its own hands, and secretly sold the opium to the Chinese. This was smuggling—and as some of the Indian officials deprecated that method of raising the revenue, the directors in London went so far as to formally prohibit the importation of opium into China against the wishes of its rulers. They were strongly opposed to the illicit trade, as strongly, in fact, as they were in favour of getting as much out of it as they could. In one despatch, while condemning "illicit trade" they suggested whether new markets for opium could not be opened in some of the Eastern ports!

The Chinese authorities published their edicts from time to time, each successive edict enforcing severer pains and penalties against the importation of the drug, and then the Company changed its tactics, and sold opium in Calcutta to merchants, who at once shipped it off to China. Still the trade grew, the popular demand for it was greatly

increasing, and vessels were built for the purpose of smuggling it in, a traffic which the character of the coast near Macao greatly favoured. These smuggling ships were supplied with arms and ammunition and they became so numerous and formidable that they "threatened to convert the whole coast into one ruthless piracy." Then, as there was so much money to be gained by the traffic, the very officers appointed by the Chinese Government to inspect incoming vessels were easily bribed, and they often brought the opium up in their own boats secretly, for sale in Canton. Everything, however, seems to have been done by the *Central* Chinese Government to avert the growing evil, which they foresaw would become a very serious matter for the country as the effect of the drug was, it was alleged, visibly enfeebling both the minds and the bodies of the people. Captain Elliott, the superintendent for the East India Company, frankly co-operated with the Imperial and provincial authorities in trying to keep the trade within legitimate bounds, and his conduct was bitterly criticised by his own countrymen interested in opium. Americans, Parsees, and British were equally engaged in the traffic.

Despite the continued edicts of the Chinese Government, the British Parliament in 1832 sanctioned, by a law, the revenue derived from the opium trade, commended the production of the drug, and approved its destination. Not long after this, matters reached a crisis. Commissioner Lin, who had great powers given him by the Emperor,

VICTORIA, HONG-KONG.

ordered all opium to be given up, and threatened serious proceedings against the lives and property of the foreign merchants who were importing it into the country. Captain Elliott, the Company's superintendent, compelled all British subjects to yield their stock of opium to the Chinese Government for destruction, and thus an enormous quantity—varying in estimated value from two to three millions of pounds sterling—was actually destroyed; one Chinaman, who tried to save a little, being promptly executed on the spot where he was captured.

Owing to the disturbances created by this act, Captain Elliott sent to the Government of India a request for as many ships of war as could be spared for the protection of the life and property of Englishmen in China. Before long British ships arrived, and the

two countries were at war. Two frigates, the *Volage* and the *Hyacinth*, attacked a Chinese fleet of twenty-nine junks near Hong-Kong with great havoc. Then fourteen warships and several transports, under the command of Admiral Elliott, assembled at Singapore and worked great devastation among the Chinese forts. Finally Sir Hugh Gough, with a large land force, came upon the scene, and fought his way to the walls of Canton. We need not follow the details of the unequal strife. The island of Chusan with its capital, a walled city six miles in circumference, was captured in the early part of the struggle, namely, July 5th, 1841, and the terms of a treaty were then prepared, but, as neither parties could agree, the war was renewed. Chusan was retaken, Amoy, believed by the Chinese to be impregnable, was captured on August 25th, 1842; Ningpo fell into our hands; and when Sir Hugh Gough appeared before Nankin the Chinese Government saw the hopelessness of further resistance, and sued for peace. It was a foregone conclusion; the miserable junks and pasteboard forts of the Chinese were merely like children's toys before the attacks of our men of war, and their troops, though they fought with splendid bravery, were no match for the disciplined valour and superior weapons of the British army. Before this war began the Chinese had known what it was to be beaten by the outer barbarians at sea, but it was a new experience for them to be thoroughly defeated on their own soil. Some treated the matter very stoically, and while hard fighting was going forward in their streets, would good-humouredly stand at their doors looking at the combatants while calmly drinking tea, or eating porridge of coarse millet. Others took a very different view, and determined not to survive defeat. It is recorded that when one of the Chinese cities was taken by Sir Hugh Gough, the Tartar General went into his house as soon as he saw that all was lost, made his servants set fire to the building, and calmly sat in his chair till he was burned to death.

The Chinese Government was ready for peace at any price, and the famous "Opium Treaty" was negociated by Sir Henry Pottinger. So small a share had opium, except as the spark which exploded the mine, to do with what some have called the "Opium War," that opium was never once mentioned in the Treaty which concluded it, save as claiming a fraction of the indemnity. On the other hand, the trade in opium was then virtually legalised. But this was only the Treaty's incidental effect, for *all* commerce was made free by its influence, and foreigners were henceforth to be frankly recognised as on an equality with the celestials, instead of being treated as outer barbarians. It was a great turning point in Chinese history, and time only shows more and more the greatness of the crisis and the value of this notable Treaty. It was framed at Nankin in the year 1842, and by it an indemnity of four millions and a half sterling, in addition to one million and a quarter as compensation for the destroyed opium, was paid by the Chinese Government; five ports,—Canton, Amoy, Foochow, Ningpo, and Shanghai, were immediately thrown open to commercial intercourse, with consuls established at each of these "Treaty ports," while Great Britain obtained the cession in perpetuity of the bare, treeless island of Hong Kong—to-day richly wooded, adorned with beautiful and stately buildings, and having a grandly picturesque harbour, crowded with the ships of every flag.

So ended the cruel and debasing war, which was described by a leading member of the House of Commons as "one of the most lawless, unnecessary, and unfair struggles in the records of history—a war in which Christians shed more heathen blood in two years than the heathens had shed of Christian blood in two centuries."

Be this as it may, it was in truth a strange anomaly that while British missionaries were pouring into every foreign land to preach the gospel, and British philanthropists

were advocating at home every possible reform in manners and morals, British statesmen could be found defending, for the sake of the revenue, a system which there can be little doubt was ruining the lives of tens of thousands of the Chinese people.

Many excellent men who took this view banded themselves together in a crusade against what they conceived to be the "unholy traffic;" they regarded it as opposed to Christian and international morality, and to the commercial interests of the country, and the "Society for the Suppression of the Opium Trade" came into existence, and still lives.

In spite of all the overwhelming pressure brought to bear upon them, the Chinese steadily refused to legalise the opium traffic, although they were impotent to enforce their laws and edicts against it.

OPIUM PLANT.

CHAPTER XXVIII.

SOCIAL REFORMS.

IN the early part of the century the terrible cruelties of the Factory system were in full force and were unheeded until 1802, when the first Sir Robert Peel, himself a manufacturer, moved to pity on behalf of the hapless sufferers, carried a measure in Parliament to provide for the care and education of the victims of what was termed the "Apprenticeship system," one of the worst phases of the great Factory question. The "apprentices" were unfortunate workhouse children, and waifs and strays, who were sent from London and other large centres into Lancashire, and were bound down to a life of slavery until they were twenty-one years old, the contract, or bargain, being made between the churchwardens and overseers of the parishes from which the children came, and the owners of factories. From these poor little wretches—some not more than five years old—there was extorted the maximum of work for the minimum of wages, and the great mills of the north, yielding at that time enormous fortunes to the owners, were worked almost entirely by these miserable child-labourers, who were "confined in close and heated rooms, stunned with the roar of revolving wheels, poisoned with the noxious effluvia of grease and gas, until turned out, weary, exhausted, and half-naked, to the cold air, to creep shivering to their beds, from which a relay of their young fellow-workers had just risen."

For this state of things there was no redress. The isolation of the mills aided the cruelties practised in them. The children could not escape, as rewards were offered for their capture and were eagerly sought; they could not complain when the visiting magistrate came, for they were in abject fear of their task-masters, and, moreover, on those days the house was swept and garnished for the anticipated visit, and appearances would have given the lie to complaints; if they perished in the machinery, it was a rare thing for a coroner's inquest to be held, and rarer still for it to issue in anything but a commonplace verdict. And when the time came that their indentures expired, after years of toil, averaging fourteen hours a day, with their bodies scarred with the wounds inflicted by the overlookers, with their minds dwarfed and vacant, with their constitutions in many instances hopelessly injured; in profound ignorance that there was even the semblance of law for their protection, these unfortunate apprentices, arrived at manhood, found that they had never been taught the trade they should have learned, and that they had no resource whatever except to enter again upon the hateful life from which they were legally freed. Should it happen that they had become crippled or diseased during their apprenticeship, their wages were fixed at the lowest possible sum, and their future was a long lingering death.*

The effect of the elder Sir Robert Peel's Act was, indirectly, to do away with the apprenticeship system, for when the steam-engine came into use, manufacturers, who had hitherto been obliged to plant their mills where water-power was available, could then plant them anywhere they chose, and they sought out the most populous neighbourhoods where they could draw the children direct from their homes, and thus save themselves

* "Life and Work of the Seventh Earl of Shaftesbury, K.G.," Vol. 1, page 140.

the cost of food, clothing, and education. Sir Robert was not blind to the fact that his measure had relieved one set of children at the expense of another, and in 1819, assisted by Mr. Nathaniel Gould, a large-hearted philanthropist, he obtained an Act prohibiting children under nine years of age from working in any cotton factory, and persons under sixteen from working for more than twelve hours a day, exclusive of meals.

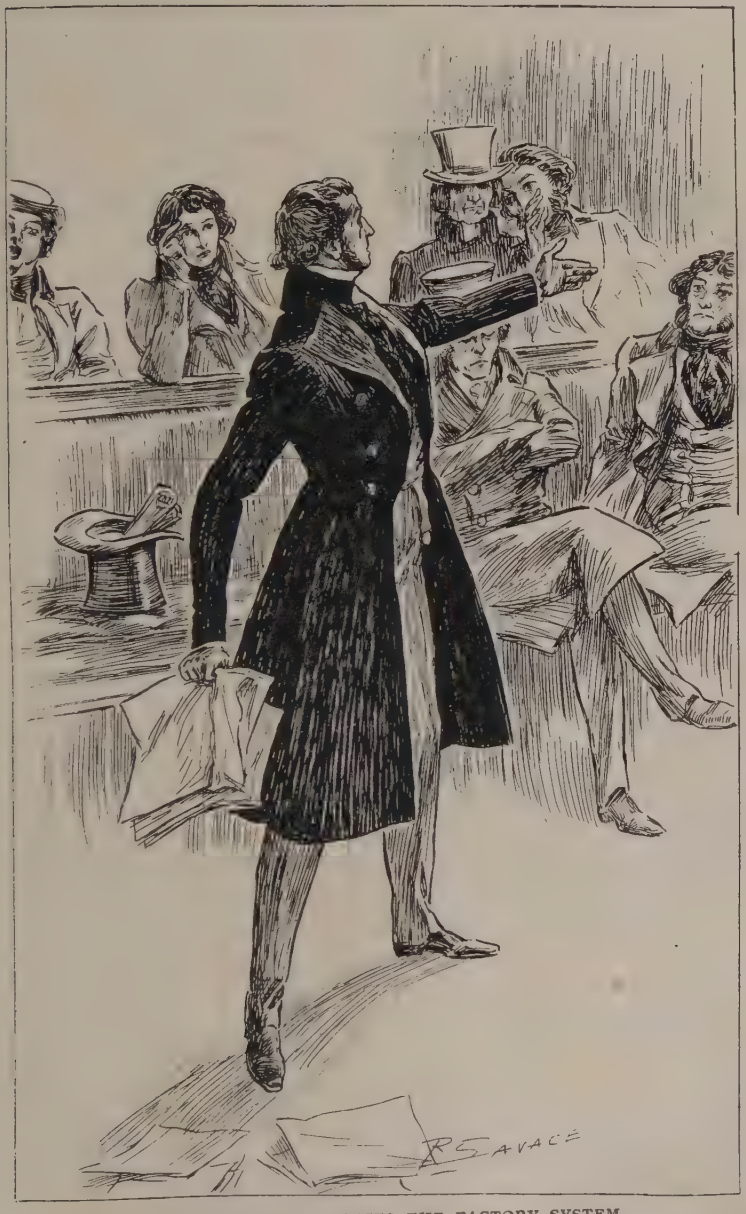
A few years later Sir John Hobhouse (afterwards Lord Broughton) carried a Bill through Parliament making it unlawful to employ any child in a cotton manufactory who should be under eighteen, for more than sixty-nine hours a week, and also limiting night work.

All these measures related to *cotton* manufactures, and did not touch woollen, silk, linen, and other factories, where evils just as great were prevalent. In 1830, therefore, a more comprehensive movement was set on foot, namely, the protection of children employed in the manufacture of all textile fabrics throughout the kingdom, and a number of large-hearted men, among whom were Mr. Richard Oastler, the "Factory King," Mr. Philip Grant, the historian of the movement, Mr. John Fielden, and the Rev. G. S. Bull, combined their efforts to support Sir John Hobhouse and Mr. Michael Thomas Sadler, M.P. for Newark, a Leeds banker, in their labours in Parliament.

Mr. Sadler was the originator of the famous Ten Hours Bill, which was to deal a death-blow to the iniquitous system, by limiting the labour of women and children in factories to ten hours a day—a reform which had never entered into the mind of either Sir Robert Peel or Sir John Hobhouse. He introduced his Bill into Parliament at the end of the Session of 1831, but the Reform agitation sent everything else to the back-ground, and the newly enfranchised middle-class of Leeds refused to return so strong a Tory as Mr. Sadler to the Reformed Parliament. Thereupon, by common choice, Lord Ashley (afterwards the Earl of Shaftesbury) became the leader of the great movement with which his name will ever be identified.

His first campaign, and many subsequent efforts in the fifteen years during which the agitation was kept up, issued in defeat. In 1833 Lord Althorp's Factory Act—a Government measure—came into force. It was a measure of relief, and established the important principle that labour and education should be combined; but it fell far short of what was required and caused the main question to be shelved until 1838. In that year Mr. Poulett Thompson, M.P. for Manchester, brought in a Bill to repeal a clause in Lord Althorp's Act, the effect of which would be "to legalise the slavery of some 40,000 children whom the Government had solemnly pledged itself to protect." The Bill was withdrawn, but it had aroused the indignation of all the factory districts, and again set in motion the Ten Hours Agitation. In denouncing Lord Althorp's Factory Act in Parliament, Lord Ashley charged the Government with wanton dilatoriness in granting adequate relief, and pleaded for the 4,000,000 men, women, and children engaged in factory labour. Among many startling details, he showed that out of 354,684 persons manually engaged in cotton mills alone, 196,385 were females, being about 55 per cent., many mere children; and he had it on evidence that in 1832 the distance which a child travelled daily in the performance of its work was from twenty to twenty-five miles—"a severity of labour exceeding that imposed upon soldiers in forced marches, or under arms before the enemy;" that under the existing factory system as many died under twenty as elsewhere under forty; that the Act was daily violated with impunity, the educational clause not being observed, the limit of hours not being adhered to, and that a generation was growing up totally ignorant of their rights as men, and of their duties as Christians. He complained that the evil was daily on the increase and

was yet unremedied, though one-fifth part of the time the House had given to the settlement of the question of negro slavery would have been sufficient to provide a remedy. "When that House," he said, "in its wisdom and mercy, decided that forty-five hours in a week was a term of labour long enough for an adult negro, he thought it would not have been unbecoming that spirit of lenity if they had considered whether sixty-nine hours a week were not too many for the children of the British empire."*



LORD ASHLEY DENOUNCES THE FACTORY SYSTEM.

No immediate effect followed, but, outside Parliament, the agitation continued with even greater force, and the cry that resounded throughout the factory districts was, "The Ten Hours Bill and no surrender!"

In 1844 Sir James Graham (the Home Secretary) introduced a measure for the Regulation of Labour in Factories, but as it contained no educational clauses and provided for twelve hours labour, it was so strongly opposed by Lord Ashley, who carried with him the sympathy of the House of Commons, that the fate of the Government was in jeopardy. To save the Government, Lord Ashley was defeated by a majority of 138. By a stratagem—one of the subtlest dodges ever played in the British

* Hansard, Third Series, XLIV, 443.

Parliament—two divisions had been taken, with the curious result that in the first instance there was a majority in Lord Ashley's favour of eight votes, and in the second instance the overwhelmingly adverse vote of 138. Commenting on this, Mr. C. Greville wrote in his "Memoirs":—"I never remember so much excitement as has been caused by Ashley's Ten Hours Bill, nor a more curious state of things—such intermingling of parties, such a confusion of opposition; a question so much more open than any question ever was before, and yet not made so or acknowledged to be so with the Government; so much zeal, asperity, and animosity; so many reproaches hurled backwards and forwards. The Government have brought forward their measure in a very positive way, and have clung to it with great tenacity, rejecting all compromise; they have been abandoned by nearly half their supporters, and nothing can exceed their chagrin and disappointment at being so forsaken. Some of them attribute it to Graham's unpopularity, and aver that if Peel had brought it forward, or if a meeting had been previously called, they would not have been defeated; again, some declare that Graham had said they were indifferent to the result, and that people might vote as they pleased, which he stoutly denies. Then John Russell, voting for 'Ten Hours,' against all he professed last year, has filled the world with amazement and many of his own friends with indignation. It has, I think, not redounded to his credit, but, on the contrary, done him considerable harm. The Opposition were divided—Palmerston and Lord John one way, Baring and Labouchere the other. It has been a very queer affair. Some voted, not knowing how they ought to vote, and following those they are accustomed to follow. Many who voted against Government afterwards said they believed they were wrong. Melbourne is all against Ashley; all the political economists, of course; Lord Spencer strong against him. Then Graham gave the greatest offence by taking up a word of the *Examiner* of last week, and calling it a 'Jack Cade legislation,' this stirring them to fury, and they flew upon him like tigers. Ashley made a speech as violent and factious as any of O'Connell's, and old Inglis was overflowing with wrath. . . . Lyndhurst rubbed his hands with great glee, and said, 'Well, we shall hear no more of 'aliens' now; people will only talk of 'Jack Cade' for the future,' too happy to shift the odium, if he could, from his own to his colleague's back. The ministers gave out, if they were beaten last Friday, they would resign; but they knew there was no chance of it. Some abused Ashley for not going on and fighting again, but he knew well enough it would be of no use. The House did certainly put itself in an odd predicament, with its two votes directly opposed to each other. The whole thing is difficult and unpleasant. Government will carry their Bill now, and Ashley will be able to do nothing, but he will go on agitating session after session; and a philanthropic agitator is more dangerous than a repealer, either of the Union or the Corn Laws. We are just now overrun with philanthropy, and God knows where it will stop or whither it will lead us."

Up to this period Lord Ashley had gained many important points in favour of the operatives, namely, an enactment limiting the labour of children to six hours a day; protection against accident, death, and mutilation from the unguarded state of the machinery; and the important provision that no women, of whatever age, should be employed in any mill or factory more than twelve hours a day. In 1846 he again introduced the Ten Hours Bill, which was read a first time, but two days later, when famine was threatening Ireland, he resigned his seat in Parliament from conscientious motives, feeling that he could no longer defend the Corn Laws according to the pledge given to his constituents when they sent him to the House. The charge of the Bill was, therefore, undertaken by Mr. Fielden, the member for Oldham, and one of the

staunchest adherents to its principles, and it was while Lord Ashley was out of Parliament that the famous Ten Hours Bill, on which he had expended fourteen years of labour, passed into law.

Many people doubted whether our manufacturers, fettered by this Act, could compete with the unrestricted labour market of foreigners, but the vast enlargement of commerce which followed the Free Trade policy of the Government, disappointed these fears, and the Factory Act, perfected in 1878 by Lord Cross's Consolidation Bill, proved an unmingled good.

CLIMBING BOYS.

Another social reform, more limited than that relating to children in factories, but not less needed, was on behalf of "climbing boys" employed as chimney-sweepers.

So early as 1760, Jonas Hanway, one of the foremost Quaker philanthropists of the eighteenth century, had the evil case of these poor children brought under his notice, and he espoused their cause with great vigour. He wrote a book exposing the cruel

SELLING CHILDREN TO SWEEP.

system, and showed, among other things, how orphan and illegitimate children were sold to the masters for 20s. or 30s. a piece, "being a smaller sum than the value of a terrier;" how they were forced up the chimneys in a perfectly naked state, and sometimes wild with terror; how some, to the great danger of life and limb, were specially employed to ascend chimneys that were on fire; how they were let out for hire to other chimney-sweepers, and in "off hours" were required to "call the streets;" how in some cases he had found that young girls were employed in the hateful climbing business; and how this constant contact with soot produced rapid mortality from "sooty cancer," lung trouble, and skin diseases of a most irritating nature.*

* "A Sentimental History of Chimney-sweepers in London and Westminster, Showing the Necessity of Putting them under Regulation to Prevent the Grossest Inhumanity to the Climbing Boys, etc." By Jonas Hanway, 1785.

Although Hanway succeeded in getting an Act passed forbidding master-sweepers to have more than six apprentices, or to take them under eight years of age, it was an Act through which a coach-and-four could pass and be so easily evaded that it effected little good; the condition of the climbing boys remained much as it had been before, and it was not until many years afterwards that any relief was afforded them. In 1834 sweeping machines were brought into use, and an Act was passed prohibiting the employment of any apprentice under ten years of age; making it a misdemeanour to send one up a chimney on fire for the purpose of extinguishing it; imposing penalties for the illtreatment of apprentices, and enacting that flues should not in future measure less than 14 inches by 9, and that all projecting angles should be rounded off!

Sweeping machines were not adopted to any large extent for many years; builders would *not* construct chimneys to suit them; rectangular flues, common everywhere, could not be swept by them, and so it happened that when, in 1840, Lord Ashley took the subject in hand he found that nearly all the evils which had shocked Jonas Hanway eighty years before, were still in existence. "Infant chimney-sweeps were still being driven naked up the foul flues, where they were exposed to be scorched, roasted alive, or stifled, and from whence they often came down with bruised and excoriated bodies to pass the hours of rest naked on the soot heaps, and contract tormenting skin diseases from the villainous stuff."*

After a thorough investigation, attended by much labour, Lord Ashley was successful in carrying an Act (3 and 4 Vic. cap. 85) which became law in August, 1840. By it, any one compelling or allowing a person under twenty-one years of age to ascend or descend a chimney, or to enter a flue for the purpose of sweeping or cleaning it, or of extinguishing fire, was liable to a penalty of not more than £10 or less than £5; it was further provided that no child under sixteen years of age should be apprenticed to a chimney-sweeper, and it contained regulations as to the future construction of chimneys.

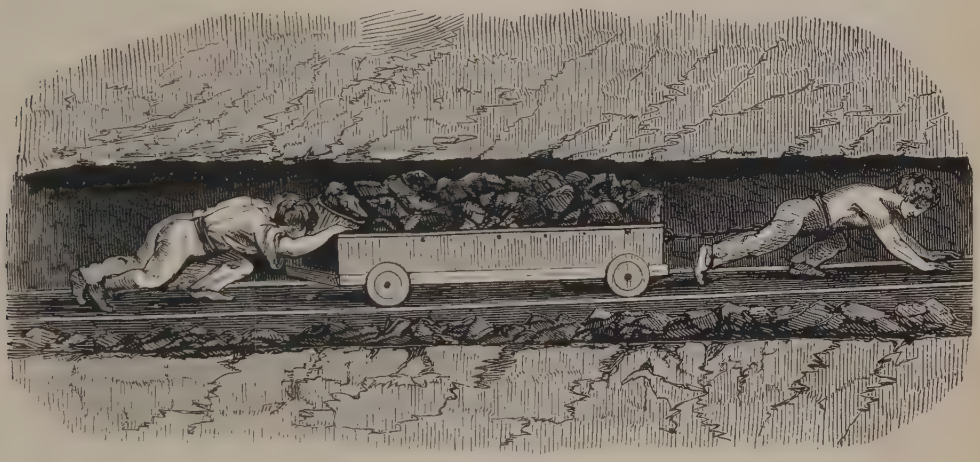
Incomprehensible as it seems to us, the master chimney-sweeps were able to snap their fingers at this Act, and notwithstanding the fact that in 1851-53-54, Lord Shaftesbury, as he had then become, vainly endeavoured to induce Parliament to deal effectually with this cruel wrong, it was not until 1864 that he succeeded in carrying a measure which made it unlawful for a chimney-sweeper to take into a house with him any assistant under sixteen years of age, and empowered magistrates, in case of a breach of the law, to impose imprisonment with hard labour instead of a fine. Even this measure did not terminate the prevalent abuses. In 1872, Lord Shaftesbury was "stirred" by learning that a poor climbing-boy had been suffocated in a flue in Staffordshire; in the following year he drew public attention to the case of a "poor little chimney-sweeper, seven-and-a-half years old, killed in a flue at Washington, in the county of Durham." In February, 1875, George Brewster, a boy of fourteen, was suffocated in a flue in Cambridge, and this case, at last, excited the public mind. George Brewster's master was sentenced to six months' hard labour. The *Times* declared that his employers were morally guilty of the crime of murder, and Lord Shaftesbury once more brought forward a measure for the suppression of the evil practice. "One hundred and two years have elapsed," he said, "since the good Jonas Hanway brought the brutal iniquity before the public, yet in many parts of England and Ireland it still prevails with the full knowledge and consent of thousands of all classes." In that Session of Parliament, he was successful in carrying a measure which, once and for all, broke the fetters of the poor climbing slaves, and rolled away one of the greatest reproaches to the civilisation of this country.

* Hansard, 3rd Series LV. 108.

CHILDREN IN MINES AND COLLIERIES.

There were many thousands of children not brought under the protection of the Factory Acts whose condition was nevertheless as bad as that of those employed in mills and factories, and in 1840 a Commission was appointed "to inquire into the employment of the children of the poorer classes in mines and collieries, and in the various branches of trade and manufacture in which numbers of children worked together, not being included in the provisions of the Act for regulating the employment of children and young persons in mills and factories; and to collect information as to the ages at which they are employed, the number of hours they are engaged in work, the time allowed each day for meals, and as to the actual state, condition, and treatment of such children, and as to the effects of such employment, both with regard to their morals and their bodily health."

The scope of the Commission included those who were employed in irksome and unhealthy work, including collieries, calico-printing works, earthenware, porcelain, pin and needle making, the glass trade, bleaching and paper mills, and many more.

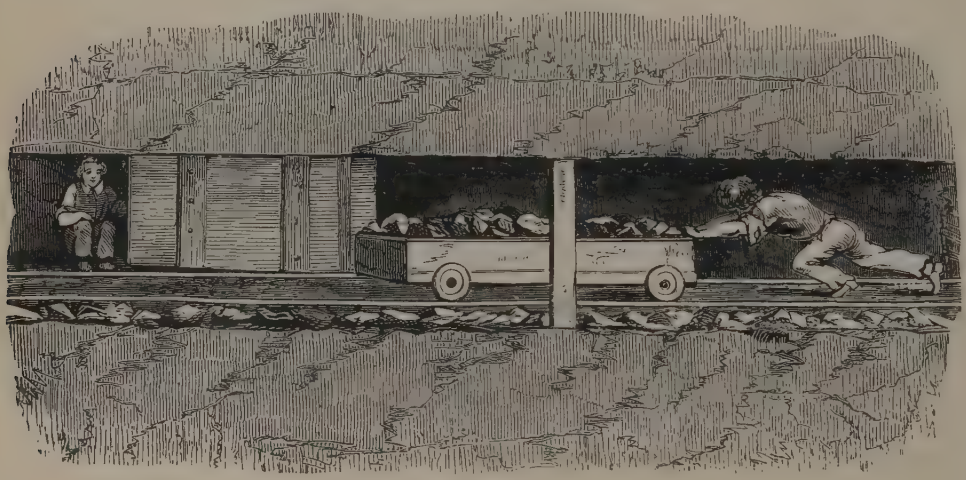


IN THE MINES.

In 1842 the report of the Commissioners was published, and it contained such a startling revelation of cruelty and oppression as to make the ears of all right-minded persons to tingle. The case of children in mines and collieries was perhaps the most pitiable, and it became the subject of immediate legislation, Lord Ashley being the prime mover. In a speech which occupied two and a half hours in delivery, and was founded almost exclusively on the report of the Commissions,* he told one of the saddest stories ever heard in the House of Commons, with the result that strong men wept, and, better still, resolved on immediate reform. It may interest some readers to know what life in our mines and collieries was like in the early years of the Queen's reign. It was found that in Northumberland and Durham there were nearly as many women and children as men in the pits, and a much larger ratio in Lancashire, Yorkshire, and elsewhere, while in the east of Scotland the system was almost universal. In many of the mines and collieries the children began work at the age of five or six years, others at seven or eight. It is difficult to imagine the horror these poor children must have experienced in the damp, dark, and close mines. Let one employment serve as an illustration. "The

* Parliamentary Papers, 1842, xv, xvi, xvii.

first employment of a very young child was that of a 'trapper,' and any occupation more barbarous it is difficult to conceive. The ventilation of a mine was a very complicated affair, and cannot easily be explained in a few words. Suffice it to say that, were a door, or trap, left open after the passage of a coal-carriage through it, the consequences would be very serious, causing great heat and closeness where the miners were at work, and perchance an explosion. Behind each door, therefore, a little child, or trapper, was seated, whose duty it was, on hearing the approach of a whirley, or coal-carriage, to pull open the door and shut it again immediately the whirley had passed. From the time the first coal was brought forward in the morning, until the last whirley had passed at night—that is to say, for twelve or fourteen hours a day—the trapper was at his monotonous, deadening work. He had to sit alone in the pitchy darkness and the horrible silence, exposed to damp, and unable to stir for more than a dozen paces with safety, lest he should be found neglecting his duty and suffer accordingly. He dared not go to sleep—the punishment was the 'strap,' applied with brutal severity. Many of the mines were infested with rats, mice, beetles, and other vermin; and stories are told of rats so bold, that they would eat the horses' food in the presence of the miners, and



IN THE MINES.

have been known to run off with the lighted candles in their mouths and explode the gas. All the circumstances of a little trapper's life were full of horror, and upon nervous, sensitive children the effect was terrible, producing a state of imbecility approaching almost to idiocy. Except on Sunday they never saw the sun; they had no hours of relaxation, their meals were mostly eaten in the dark, and their 'homes' were with parents who devoted them to this kind of life.*

One or two extracts from the speech of Lord Ashley founded, as we have said, on the Commissioners' report, may be quoted here. †

"In some of the collieries the main roadways did not exceed a yard in height; in others they varied from 22 to 28 inches, so that in such places the youngest children could only work in the most constrained position. The ways were so low that only little boys could work in them, which they did naked, and often in mud and water, drawing sledge tubs by the girdle and chain. The girdle was bound round the waist of

* Life of Lord Shaftesbury. Vol. I, pp. 413-14.
† Speeches of the Earl of Shaftesbury, K.G., on Social Questions, p. 36.

the child, to which was attached a chain which passed under the legs and was attached to the cart. The child was obliged to work on all fours, and the chain passed under what in that posture might be called the hind-legs; and thus, with blisters on their sides caused by the girdle, and terrible chafings of the legs from the chains, they crawled for weary hours through avenues not so good as a common sewer, quite as wet and oftentimes more contracted, and in a temperature described as perfectly intolerable. 'I went into the pit at seven years of age,' said Robert North, in his evidence before the Commissioners. 'When I drew by the girdle and chain the skin was broken, and the blood ran down. . . . If we said anything they would beat us. I have seen many draw at six. They must do it or be beat. They cannot straighten their backs during the day. I have sometimes pulled till my hips have hurt me so that I have not known what to do with myself.'"

Incredible as it may seem in this day, girls were employed as trappers and "hurriers" in common with boys. "The girls," said Lord Ashley, "are of all ages from seven to twenty-one. They commonly work quite naked down to the waist, and are dressed—so far as they are dressed at all—in loose trousers. These are seldom whole on either sex. In many of the collieries the adult colliers, whom these girls serve, work perfectly naked. . . . Any sight more disgustingly indecent or revolting than these girls at work can scarcely be imagined."

In this condition they had to drag heavy weights, some 12,000, some 14,000, some 16,000 yards daily.

"Coal-bearing" was an equally cruel slavery, and was almost always performed by women and children. "They carry coal on their backs," said one of the Commissioners, "on unrailed roads, with burdens varying from ¾ cwt. to 3 cwt., a cruelty revolting to humanity. I found a little girl only six years old," he added, "carrying ½ cwt., and making regularly fourteen long journeys a day. With a burden varying from 1 cwt. to 1½ cwt., the height ascended and the distance along the roads added together exceeded in each journey the height of St. Paul's Cathedral. And it not unfrequently happens that the tugs break, and the load falls on those females who are following, who are of course struck off the ladders into the depths below." No wonder that one poor girl should say, "We are worse off than horses; they draw on iron rails, and we on flat floors."

The hours of labour were everywhere excessive, varying from eleven to sixteen out of the twenty-four, while in the great majority of the mines night-work was a part of the ordinary system of labour. "I have repeatedly wrought the twenty-fours hours," said Annie Hamilton, a girl of seventeen, "and after two hours of rest and my peas (soup) have returned to the pit and worked another twelve hours."

The physical effects of this system were stunted growth, crippled gait, irritation of head, back, and feet, diseases of the spine, and of the heart and lungs. The most destructive and frequent diseases were asthma and rheumatism. In addition to these evils, there were those resulting from the violence of the brutal overseers and their assistants.

The effect of Lord Ashley's speech was instantaneous, and a Bill to put an end to these iniquities passed into law in a single session. It provided that no fresh female hands should be employed in any mine or colliery, and that on and from March 1st, 1843, no female whatever should in future be so employed; that no male should be employed or apprenticed under ten years of age; that no steam or other engine should be entrusted to the care of a person under the age of fifteen; that payment of wages at

public houses should cease, and that inspectors, appointed by the Home Secretary, should enter and examine all works in mines and collieries, and heavy fines were to be inflicted upon offenders against any of the provisions of the Act.*

Other subjects dealt with in the report of the Children's Employment Commission were brought under the notice of Parliament so soon as the glaring abuses relating to the employment of women and children in mines and collieries had been reformed. The case of the 25,000 persons connected with calico-printing and its subsidiary processes of bleaching and dyeing, revealed a state of affairs scarcely less appalling than that to which we have referred. It was proved that some of the children began work at four and five years of age, that the rooms in which they worked were filled with dust and small particles of fluff, that the temperature of the workshops usually varied from 65 degrees to 80, that young girls were sometimes kept at exhausting labour for thirty-eight hours at a stretch, and that night work was almost universal. The Printing Works' Act (8 and 9 Vic. cap. 29) came into force on January 1st, 1846, and these miserable abuses were swept away.

"COAL BEARING" ACCIDENT.

Contemporaneously with these splendid reforms, and of others which we have not space to chronicle, there grew up a desire on the part of the philanthropists to give to those whose hours of labour were shortened, the advantages of some education, and of the active steps taken to this end we shall write when dealing with the general subject of the progress of education.

* 5 and 6 Vic. cap. 99.

CHAPTER XXIX.

IN AUSTRALASIA.

IN a previous chapter* we have sketched, in broad outline only, the origin of our colonies in Australia, and some of the explorations and other labours of the early colonists.

The sure, silent, and almost unobserved growth of the colonies was remarkable. With very little assistance and a great deal of opposition, with bungling officials and changing Governments, they steadily pursued their quiet way, until wildernesses blossomed into gardens, and canvas towns grew into flourishing cities, and it was said that "we seemed to have conquered and peopled half the world in a fit of absence of mind."†

F. S. Weller.

One of the chief grievances of our colonists in the early days of the century was that, cut off as they were from the Imperial Government, they could not get attention to their state, and if by chance there was a Colonial Secretary who vouchsafed to take an interest in their affairs, the next mail would probably bring the intelligence that he was "out of office." Moreover, from 1802 to 1855, the Colonial Office was attached to the War Office, so that in the event of war or rumour of war, the attention of the Secretary was given to the more pressing claims; "Colonial affairs could wait," and the dual office became, in the words of Lord Derby, "the Office at War with the Colonies." In the early days of the colonies there was a "Colonial party" in Parliament to represent, or misrepresent, their interests, but they were not strong and influential as in later days, and

* See pages 99-106, 257.

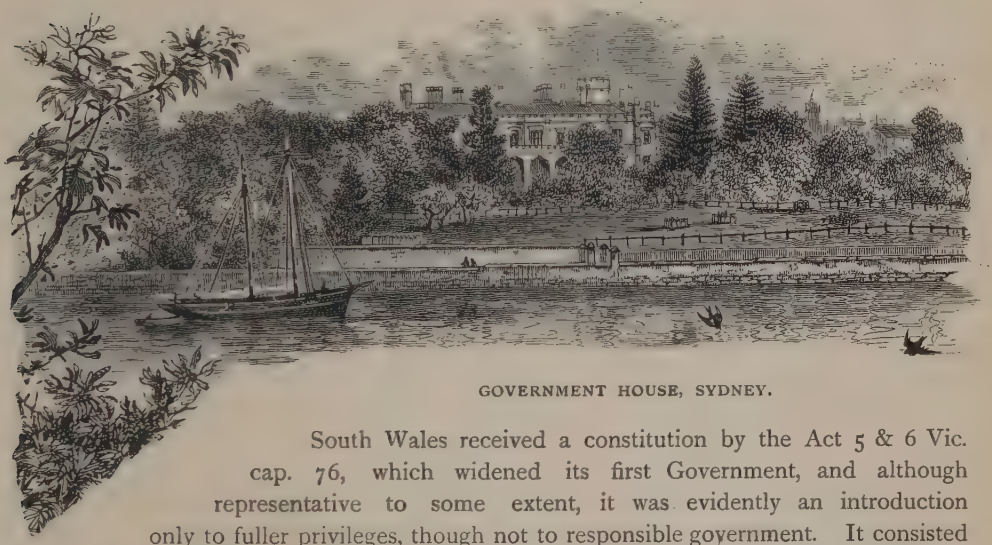
† "The Expansion of England;" Sir John Seeley.

the constant cropping up of colonial questions became a great bore to those who were not personally interested. On the other hand there were those who threw cold water on every colonisation scheme, and not only so, but made a dead set on colonisation generally. Sir Henry Parnell for example* wrote thus in 1830:—"The history of the colonies for many years is that of a series of losses and of the destruction of capital, and if to the many millions of private capital which have been thus wasted were added some hundred millions that have been raised by British taxes, and spent on account of the colonies, the total loss to the British public of wealth, which the colonies have occasioned, would appear to be enormous. The discovery of the real sources of wealth has shown the folly of wasting lives and treasure on colonial possessions."

In NEW SOUTH WALES—the parent colony—the pertinacity of the colonists was such that, notwithstanding the drawback of convictism and other obstacles, with tremendous energy substantial progress was made. Sydney, the capital, was divided into five districts so early as 1810, with police and watch-houses for each district, and all the streets were named after well-known persons in England, or Governors of the Colony, as George Street, in honour of the King; Pitt Street, in honour of Pitt; Phillip Street, in honour of the Governor. Within a year or two some good roads were laid out, public markets were opened, boats and cabs were licensed for traffic, churches and chapels were built, and many public works commenced. In 1830, the foundation stone of Sydney College was laid; in 1833 the School of Art, and the Australian Steam Navigation Board were formed, and in the same year, the Port of Sydney was declared a free port by order of the Lords Commissioners of the Admiralty. In 1836 the first bishop of Sydney arrived; in 1838 the Victoria Theatre was opened; in 1841 gas was first used for the lighting of shops, and on January 1st, 1844, the first peal of bells ever heard in Australia, ushered in the New Year from the tower of St. Mary's Roman Catholic Cathedral. Improvement in public works and the extension of good roads, or of mountain tracks, kept pace with the ever accumulating revenue, and in 1850 a line of railway was constructed from Sydney to Goulburn, and another between Newcastle and Maitland. The Murray was rendered available for navigation to and from the Adelaide district, and coast traffic was steadily developed by steam-boats and sailing craft. To crown all, Sydney University, mainly indebted for its origin to William Charles Wentworth, "the Australian Patriot," and Sir Charles Nicholson, was inaugurated in 1852.

* Sir Henry Parnell had been Chairman of Mr. Canning's Parliamentary Finance Committee.

What is said of the various stages of political growth in one colony applies in greater or less degree to nearly all the other colonies. In the case of New South Wales there had been (1) a succession of autocratic governors from Captain Phillip in 1788 till 1824 when, (2) under the governorship of Sir Thomas Brisbane, "the first legislative council, consisting of six gentlemen, was appointed to advise the Governor, amongst them being John Macarthur, the founder of the wool industry and one of the greatest benefactors of Australia. Four more members were added by Governor Darling, and additions were made from time to time, so that the Governor had at his elbow the men best qualified to advise him in all colonial affairs. Proceedings, were, however, conducted in private until the 6th of June, 1838, when the public and the press were first admitted. (3) From 1824 to 1842 the members of this council were all nominated by the Governor, but in that year the principle of election was adopted, six being elected and six nominated. This composite council was therefore partly official and partly unofficial. (4) This representation, however, did not keep pace with the wants of the colony. In 1842, New



GOVERNMENT HOUSE, SYDNEY.

South Wales received a constitution by the Act 5 & 6 Vic. cap. 76, which widened its first Government, and although representative to some extent, it was evidently an introduction only to fuller privileges, though not to responsible government. It consisted of a legislative council of thirty-six members, one-third of them nominated by the Governor, and two-thirds elected by the people. To this stage of freedom of government to which New South Wales had arrived, it was proposed by the Act of 1850 to admit Van Diemen's Land, South Australia, Victoria, and Western Australia, *with power to reform themselves.* This in due course of time led to complete self government, or responsible government—the fifth stage of constitutional progress." *

This Imperial statute which first introduced representative institutions into Australia is a great landmark in its political history. Then, for the first time in a scheme of Australian government, the legislative body took up the position which all Englishmen had long considered to be its due. The plan was "no longer to give judicial institutions with a minimum of Parliamentary Government attached; but to create a scheme of representative government with independent executive and judicial authorities."

In 1840, the Imperial Government appointed a Board of Land and Emigration Commissioners to advise the Colonial Secretary in all matters respecting the disposal of Crown lands in the Australian colonies, and also on the subject of emigration. This was

* "The Growth and Administration of the British Colonies, 1837-1897," by Rev. W. P. Greswell, M.A. p. 194.

a most desirable step, and the Commissioners at once laid down an important rule which virtually governed the policy of New South Wales and her daughter colonies until the gold discoveries, namely, that while the proceeds of land sales should continue to be the exclusive property of the Imperial Government, the sum produced by such sales should be regarded as a trust for the benefit of that colony or part of the colony which produced it, and should be expended for its benefit; one half in assisting emigration, the other half in the carrying out of public works. Accordingly a new set of land regulations, drawn up in pursuance of the Imperial Statute, known as the Crown Land Sales Act, affecting all the Australian colonies, was issued in 1842.

One of the most important series of events in the history of the colony was the gradual disappearance of the penal system. Sydney was full of convicts; any household wanting labourers, artisans, or domestic servants, female as well as male, had only to apply to the authorities, and convicts would be "assigned" to them for the purpose.

These convicts went about the streets, and followed their daily calling, to all appearances as free men and women, whereas in reality they were under the strictest surveillance, and subject to rigorous laws and somewhat brutal punishment. As a matter of fact, they were little better than slaves and were at the mercy of their masters and mistresses, who, on application to a magistrate, could obtain an order for an "assigned" man to be flogged with as many as fifty lashes. Every form of immorality prevailed, which it was impossible in the existing state of things to check, and at length the eyes of the more thoughtful colonists were opened to see that an end must be put to the hateful system; they could not endure it any longer, and they made a vigorous appeal to the Imperial Government. The whole matter was discussed in the House of Commons in 1837, and such startling revelations were made that in the following year the "assignment" system was discontinued in New South Wales; in 1840 transportation to that colony was abolished, and although an attempt to revive both practices was made in 1849, nothing came of it, for the majority of the colonists showed a disposition to fight the question to the bitter end.* In 1857, the transportation system was entirely abolished, and sentences of penal servitude were substituted.

Another great event in the history of New South Wales was the discovery of the important territory long since known as VICTORIA. It happened thus:—Two cattle owners, Messrs. Hume and Hovell, came along the Murray and across the Australian Alps in 1824, to the present site of Geelong, but returned without accomplishing any result beyond exploring the district. Ten years later Mr. Thomas Henty with a few free settlers, located themselves at Portland Bay, 234 miles from where Melbourne now stands. In the following year (1835) John Batman led a party to Port Phillip Bay, and did a smart bit of business with the blacks, who, in consideration of "three sacks of glass beads, 10lbs. of nails, and 5lbs. of flour," ceded to him 600,000 acres of good land.† Three months later John Pasco Fawkner, "the father of the colony of Victoria," sailed up the Yarra Yarra in the schooner *Enterprise*, and made fast his vessel to a eucalyptus tree on the bank opposite to where the Melbourne custom-house now stands.

* It may be mentioned here that in 1849 the inhabitants of Cape Town resolved in public meeting "That the British Government had no right to degrade into a penal settlement the Cape of Good Hope, which became a portion of the British Empire by capitulation and cession from a friendly Power, and that all attempts so to injure and degrade it are unjust and tyrannical, and may be constitutionally resisted by the inhabitants as British subjects." Notwithstanding this strong manifestation of feeling on the part of the colonists, the ship *Neptune*, loaded with convicts, was dispatched from Bermuda to Simon's Bay, but the opposition becoming too significant to be misapprehended the vessel was withdrawn, and the offensive Order in Council of 4th of September, 1848, was cancelled. (Irving's "Annals of Our Times.")

† This contract was afterwards annulled by the English Government, but compensation to the amount of £7,000 was given to Batman's representatives.

In 1836, Governor Bourke, the "most able, honest, and beneficent administrator," proclaimed the little settlement at the mouth of the Yarra to be within the jurisdiction of New South Wales, and appointed a resident police magistrate. In 1837 (the year the Queen came to the throne) he visited the district, framed the plan of a township, and named it Melbourne in honour of the Queen's first Prime Minister. There was little in "The Settlement," as infant Melbourne was for some time called, to suggest its future wealth and vastness. In January, 1838, there were a couple of wooden houses serving as hotels for the country settlers, when they brought up their wool to send off by ship, or for new arrivals on their way to the "bush." "A small, square, wooden building," says Mr. George Arden, an eye-witness, "with an old ship's bell suspended from a most defamatory-looking, gallows-like structure, fulfilled the duty of church or chapel to the various religious denominations, whence, however, the solemn voice of prayer and praise, sounding over the yet wild country, had an effect the most interesting and impressive." There were two or three shops, each selling everything useful, and a

NEW SOUTH WALES
SOUTH AUSTRALIA
VICTORIA
SOUTHERN OCEAN
MELBOURNE
Scale of Miles
Railways
Mildura
Hay
Narrandera
Deniliquin
Berrigan
Cobram
Mulwala
Echuca
Bendigo
Castlemaine
Maryborough
Ballarat
Hamilton
Portland
Discovery Bay
Geelong
Sale
Port Albert
Wilsons Promontory
Cooma
Mt Townsend
Forest Hill
Murrindal
C. Howe
Towong
Wangaratta
Beechworth
Myrtleford
Bright
Albury
Wodonga
Yackandandah
Wentworth
Swan Hill
Kerang
Inglewood
Dunolly
Avoca
Clunes
Creswick
Daylesford
Kyneton
Woodend
Gisborne
Sunbury
Bacchus Marsh
Geelong
Colac
Warrnambool
Port Fairy
Portland
Casterton
Coleraine
Dartmoor
Mortlake
Penola
Kingston
Beachport
Naracoorte
Border Pt
Serviceton
Horsham
Stawell
Ararat
Maryborough
Dunolly
Talbot
Creswick
Daylesford
Kyneton
Woodend
Gisborne
Sunbury
Bacchus Marsh
Melton
Werribee
Williamstown
Geelong
Queenscliff
Port Phillip Bay
Western Port
Phillip I
Wilsons Promontory
Corner Inlet
Snowy R
Tambo
Bairnsdale
Omeo
Buchan
Gippsland Lakes
Lake King
Lake Victoria
Lake Wellington
Lake Tyrrell
Salt Lake
Lake Albacutya
Lake Hindmarsh
Lake Hopetown
Lake Coorong
Lake Tyntynder
Lake Yeang
Lake Narowen
Lake Liparoo
Lake Warrengren
Plain
Murray R
Murrumbidgee R
Darling R
Loddon R
Avoca R
Campaspe R
Goulburn R
Ovens R
Broken R
Kiewa R
Mitta Mitta R
Snowy R
Tambo R
Nicholson R
Latrobe R
Thomson R
Macalister R
Mitchell R
Tyers R
King R
Avon R
Richardson R
Wimmera R
Glenelg R
Darling R
Murray R
Murrumbidgee R
Yarra R
Barwon R
Hopkins R
Wannon R
Eumeralla R
Moyne R
Curdies R
Gellibrand R
Aire R
Otway
C. Otway
C. Nelson
Port Fairy
Warrnambool
Tunbora
Mutton Bird I
Middleton
Apollo Bay
Forrest
C. Schanck
Mornington
Hastings
Western Port
Phillip I
Cape Woolamai
Phillip Bay
Port Melbourne
Sandridge
Williamstown
Kerrith
Corio Bay
Geelong
Queenscliff
Point Lonsdale
Swan Bay
Lake Connewarre
Lake Modewarre
Lake Murdeduke
Lake Corangamite
Lake Purrumbete
Lake Bullen Merri
Lake Gnotuk
Lake Keilambete
Lake Colongulac
Lake Gnarpurt
Lake Terang
Lake Wangoom
Lake Linlithgow
Lake Boga
Lake Charm
Lake Hindmarsh
Lake Albacutya
Lake Tyrrell
Lake Hopetown
Lake Coorong
Lake Tyntynder
Lake Yeang
Lake Narowen
Lake Liparoo
Lake Warrengren
Plain
Lake Victoria
Lake Wellington
Lake King
Lake Tyers
Lake Omeo
Lake Buchan
Lake Gippsland

years old however when it began to clamour for separation from New South Wales. In 1842 its local institutions were improved, and it was allowed to send six delegates to the Legislative Council at Sydney. But Melbourne continued agitating, till, in 1850, its prayer was granted, and the British Parliament passed an Act by which, on July 1st, 1851, Port Phillip became a separate colony under the new name of Victoria, said to have been chosen by the Queen herself.

Just before that wonderful season of overwhelming prosperity set in, namely 1851, the colony witnessed the most terrible drought that had ever assailed it.

MELBOURNE, 1840.

During the season of 1850 "pastures had withered; creeks or river-beds had become fissured clay-pans; waterholes had disappeared; sheep and cattle had perished in great numbers, and the sun-burnt plains were strewn with their bleached skeletons. The birds fell dead from the branches, and the very leaves on the trees crackled in the heat and were as inflammable as tinder. As the summer advanced, the temperature became torrid, and on the morning of the 6th of February, 1851, the air blowing down from the north was as the breath of a furnace.

"A fierce wind arose, gathering strength and velocity from hour to hour, until about noon it blew with all the violence of a tornado. It mysteriously wrapped the whole country in a sheet of flame—fierce, awful, and irresistible. Men, women, and children, sheep and cattle, birds and snakes, fled before the consuming fire in a common panic.

The air was darkened by volumes of smoke, relieved by showers of sparks; the forests were ablaze, and, on the ranges, the conflagration transformed their wooded slopes into appalling masses of incandescent columns and arches.

"Farmhouses, fences, crops, orchards, gardens, haystacks, bridges, woolsheds, were swept away by the impetuous onrush of the flames, that left nothing behind them but a charred heap of ruins and a scene of pitiable desolation. The human fugitives took refuge in water where it could perchance be found, and stood in it, breathing with difficulty the suffocating atmosphere, and listening with awe to the roar of the elements and the cries of the affrighted animals.

"Many lives were lost, and the value of the property and live stock destroyed on 'Black Thursday' can only be vaguely conjectured. Late in the evening, a strong sea-breeze began to blow, driving back the heavy pall of smoke that deepened the darkness

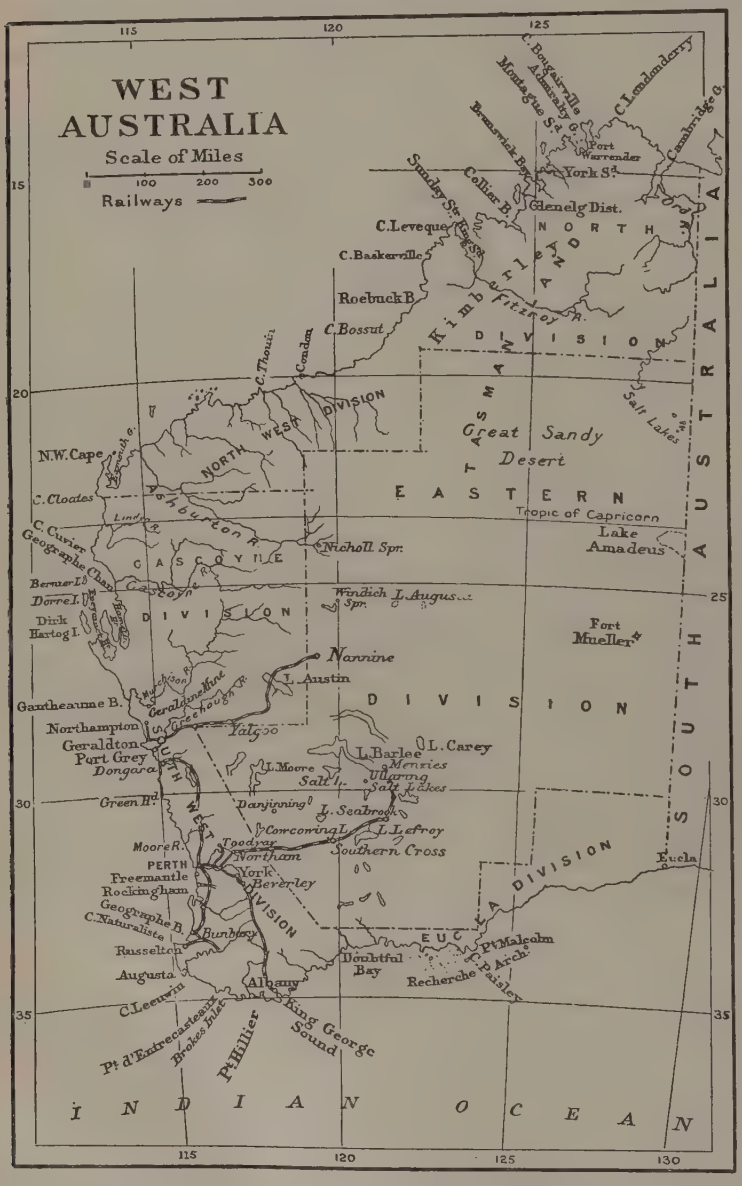
A STREET IN MODERN MELBOURNE.

of the night. Next day dawned on blackened homesteads, smouldering forests, charred carcases of sheep, oxen, horses, poultry, and wild animals. The whole face of the country presented such an aspect of ruin and devastation as could never be effaced from the recollection of those who had witnessed and survived the calamity."*

"According to the method of nature in this singular continent of alternating surprises, the succeeding season of 1851, as if to make amends for recent misdemeanour, was genial, plentiful, and generous. It seemed as if the conflagration, calamitous as it was, had mysteriously been a providential visitation, for wherever the blazing element had committed its ravages, rich succulent grasses sprang up and the sheep, cattle, and stock waxed fat and sleek; the crops, with fresh varieties of seeds, sprouted with amazing luxuriance and yielded an abundant harvest." †

* "Picturesque Atlas of Australasia." Dr. Garran.
† "The Story of Australasia," by T. S. Laurie.

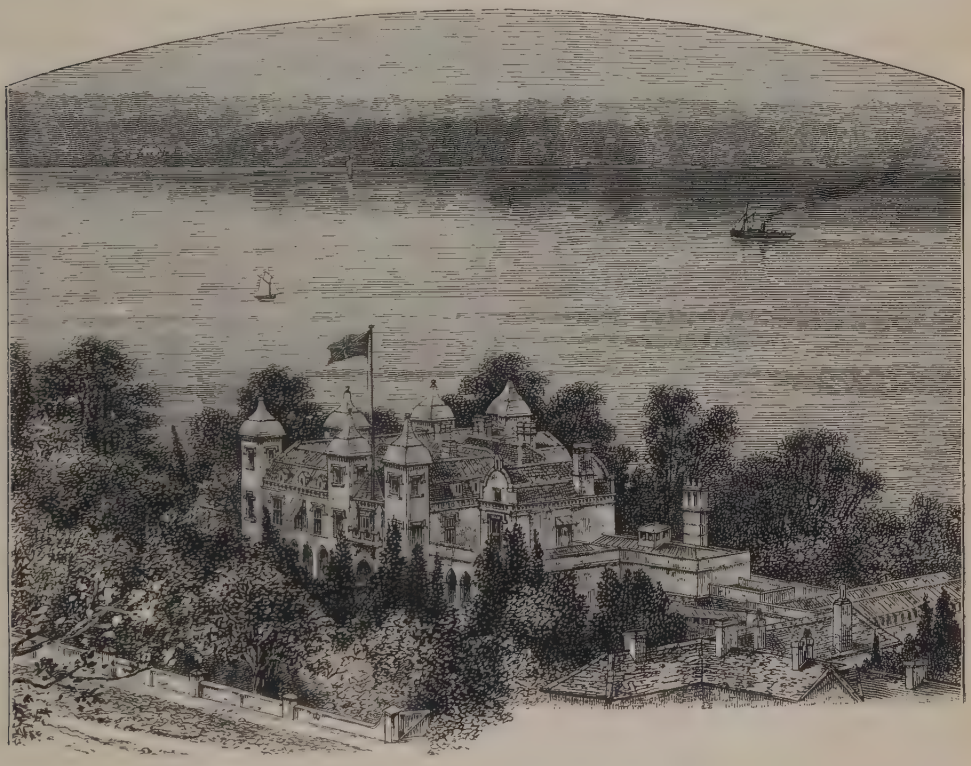
We will now take a glance at some of the other Australian colonies. There is no story of rapid progress to tell in connection with WESTERN AUSTRALIA until many years after its foundation. The disastrous folly of its first settlement* was to bear its fruits, and end in failure. While the other colonies were forging ahead Western Australia was losing the little it had gained, and the settlers who were wise, gathered together what possessions they had, and left its sandy deserts to seek and find a better scope for their capital and energies elsewhere. These who remained, settled down in and around Perth waiting for the turn in the tide of their affairs which was very slow in coming. Twenty years after the foundation of the colony, the population only amounted to about 7,000, and the ground they had cultivated was of no larger extent than many Victorian graziers could then boast of possessing. Gradually, the animosity of the aborigines wore away, and many of them became of great use to the colonists, who from the first had been hampered by the inability to procure labour. Unfortunately, there was too great a uniformity of occupation among the colonists to make commercial prosperity. "Exchange," says Mr. Edward Jenks,† "even more than production, is essential to the increase of wealth, and how exchange when all produce similar articles? The answer evidently



* See page 258.

† In his "History of the Australian Colonies," page 119.

was, develope an export trade, and thus increase your own means and the customs revenue at once. But just here lay the difficulty; the Indian trade was not very hopeful. The Eastern colonies hardly wanted anything that Western Australia could give them. Nevertheless the colonists had made a determined effort with no little success. In the year 1843-4 they had increased their exports by nearly a 100 per cent.; they had made a beginning in ship building, the vine and the olive were being cultivated for export, and the friends of the colony had secured admission for Western Australia timber into the dock-yards of the mother country. Meanwhile, the old standard pursuits were not neglected. Sheep breeding and farming remained as popular as ever." Still, the old difficulty remained of obtaining a labour supply at moderate charges. In 1846, just when other Australian colonies were panting to throw away from themselves



GOVERNMENT BUILDINGS, PERTH, AUSTRALIA.

the curse of convictism, Western Australia, not seeing any other method of obtaining labour, requested the Imperial Government to send them convict immigrants! As the "assignment" system had been abolished and the gang system required an organisation which Western Australia could not supply, "assorted" convicts were sent under an Order in Council of the 1st of May, 1849. And in the following year batches of ticket-of-leave men, and "Parkhurst lads," were sent out, and Western Australia, at its own request, became a penal colony. "Before April, 1852, the colony had received 1,500 convicts, of whom about half were ticket-of-leave and half actual prisoners. In the year 1852 the Imperial Parliament voted £86,000 for the convict establishment, most of it to be spent in the colony. New officials were needed, old officials had their salaries raised. There was a steady market for provisions, and with the produce of their sales, the farmers and squatters took up new land."

The first settlement of QUEENSLAND—the immense area to the north of New South Wales, much larger than New South Wales and Victoria combined, with a coast line extending over 2,500 miles—occurred in 1825, when the territory was used as a place of transportation for convicts. Happily this state of things did not last long; the abolition of the "assignment" system in 1838 and the suspension of transportation in 1840 brought the penal establishment at Brisbane to an end.

By the Act of Parliament which gave a constitution to New South Wales, of which Queensland up to that time formed a part, the Queen in Council was empowered to separate from the parent territory any districts north of the 26th degree of south latitude, and to confer upon them the more elementary system of government which the parent colony was throwing off. In 1842, therefore, Queensland was defined as "the Northern District of New South Wales," with a view to its ultimate separation. This, however, was delayed until 1859, when the territory to the north of the 29th parallel was proclaimed a separate colony.

Meanwhile slow progress, but sure, was made, more particularly in the district of Moreton Bay, and very much in the same manner that had attended the opening up of other colonies. In 1842 the first open sale of lands took place, but in the first nine years of the existence of the colony less than 2,500 acres were disposed of. Steadily the

tide of immigration, not only from the northern districts but also from Europe, set in, and squatters spread themselves about the country. These squatters experienced great difficulty in obtaining labour, and in their emergency they kept up the bad system of "assignment" and even of direct importation of convicts in the Moreton Bay district for ten years longer than in New South Wales proper. In 1849, as we have said elsewhere, there was a stout attempt made to revive the transportation system; a vessel named the *Hashemy*, laden with convicts, was driven away from Melbourne to Sydney, and again from Sydney without being able to discharge her convict cargo. Ultimately the squatters of the Darling Downs received them with open arms, and so disposed of the difficulty. "In their hunger for labour the squatters also imported Chinese hands across the Straits, and thus laid the foundation of the great Chinese question. It is said, however, that the original Australian prejudice against the Chinaman was started before his arrival by the scare created during the Chinese War of 1841-2, to the effect that the Chinese were determined to revenge themselves on their white neighbours by poisoning their tea. As the squatter's "hand" drank tea in large quantities when he could not get whisky, the stockmen fled to the towns upon the startling rumour, and left the stations deserted."

TASMANIA.—In 1837 Sir John Franklin, the distinguished navigator, whose exploits in the Arctic Seas will be told in a subsequent chapter, was appointed Governor of Van Diemen's Land in succession to Colonel Arthur, an office he held until 1843. Although personally very popular with the colonists he was anything but a good administrator. He could not manage to steer a clear course in Colonial affairs, and came into collision with several classes of the community, especially those connected with ecclesiastical affairs, as well as with the Colonial Secretary of the colony.

The severe commercial depression which was prevalent throughout all the colonies in 1840-2 was felt with greater force in Tasmania than elsewhere, and Sir John's talents not being best at administrative work, he did not render much service in the crisis. The progress of the colony was slow, and it was not until 1853 that transportation was abolished—about the same time that the name of Tasmania was officially adopted on the petition of the colonists.

It was during the government of Franklin that some of the institutions which have given fame to Tasmania came into existence. "Franklin," says Mr. Jenks, "conferred on the colony lasting distinction as the scene of scientific research. He encouraged every visitor who came with the object of extending knowledge. Sir Joseph Hooker, in the year 1840, obtained by personal investigation the materials for his great work, 'The Flora of Tasmania.' The ambitious explorer and naturalist, Strzelecki, received in Tasmania the warmest help and encouragement. Charles Darwin, in the *Beagle*, spent many months in the investigation of the coasts and rivers of the colony. Jukes, the geologist, and Richardson, the naturalist, almost made this period famous by their researches. Franklin himself founded what is now the Royal Society of Tasmania, then known as the Tasmanian Society, and its earliest meetings were held at Government House. Moreover, he entered into correspondence with the famous Dr. Arnold, of Rugby, with a view to the establishment of elementary education on a sound basis, and a provision for higher education. As a result, one of Dr. Arnold's nephews was appointed inspector of schools in the colony, and one of his favourite pupils became head-master of the first higher-grade school. The period of Sir John Franklin's government is the golden age of learning in Tasmania."

When gold was discovered in Australia, in 1851, a rapid emigration from Tasmania took place, and this gave a check for a long time to its prosperity. After its recovery, however, from that exodus, it went ahead prosperously and progressively and with moderate rapidity.

NATIVE CAMP, AUSTRALIA.

South Australia. The financial crisis into which Governor Gawler* had plunged the colony of South Australia by drawing Bills upon the Home Government, which were dishonoured, made the administration of his successor, Captain (afterwards Sir) George Grey, one of great difficulty. He found the colony in a state of bankruptcy with apparently irretrievable ruin staring it in the face. He came into office under the most difficult and unpopular of all conditions, namely, the necessity of exacting rigid retrenchment, and the task of creating a revenue by the imposition of increased duties of customs. He found a colony which, but a year before, had shown every appearance of a state of great prosperity in all branches of industry, trade, and commerce, abruptly plunged into hopeless insolvency: its merchants paralysed by the sudden check; the working classes, dissatisfied with the low rate of wages, leaving the colony as fast as they could go; and distress and destitution prevalent everywhere, 16,000 persons being plunged into more or less of poverty, which could only be alleviated by assistance from without, that is to say, the importation of capital into the colony. In a newspaper of the day it was recorded:—"Property is now selling by auction in Adelaide and the neighbourhood, in many cases for less than the title deeds cost two years ago. Houses are gladly let to respectable persons rent free, and notwithstanding this, nearly half the tenements are empty and falling to pieces. . . . Every ship that leaves for the other colonies takes from fifteen to twenty passengers, while the arrivals are nil." It would be out of place to record here the measures that were taken to give new life to the colony; it will be sufficient to say that by 1844 the depression was so far over as to enable all classes of the community to breathe more freely, and to enter with greater activity into business and industrial concerns.

*See page 260.

In 1842, two Acts of the Imperial Parliament were passed, one for "The better government of South Australia," the other for "Regulating the sale of waste lands." The first Act repealed two former Acts and with them the authority under which the Board of South Australian Commissioners and the Resident Commissioner exercised their functions, and empowered Her Majesty to establish a form of Legislature similar to that previously in force in all the other Australian colonies, and instructions were sent to the Governor constituting such a Council as being, at least for the present, best suited to the wants and conditions of the colony, but holding out the hope that at an early period it might be expedient to grant to the inhabitants of the colony a certain degree of control over its resources and expenditure by means of popular representation in the local Legislature. The Act for regulating the sale of waste lands provided that instead of a uniform price of £1 per acre and the entire proceeds to be applied to immigration, all waste lands,

DINGOES, AUSTRALIA.

except blocks of 20,000 acres, should be put up to public auction at the minimum price of £1 per acre, and that only one-half of the proceeds should be applied to the purposes of immigration, the other half being applicable to local improvements, the aborigines, and so forth. These two Acts placed South Australia, both as regards government and land distribution, on the footing of an ordinary colony of the British Empire, free from proprietary interests.

In 1843 the great discovery of the Burra-Burra Copper Mine gave an enormous impetus to the mining interests of the colony, which for a few years prior to that time had been attracting the attention of the colonists, and was to prove a source of incalculable wealth and prosperity. In the course of two or three years the £5 shares in the Burra-Burra mine became worth £220, a fact in the history of mining at that time probably unparalleled. For the first six years the produce of the mines amounted to nearly 80,000 tons of copper ore, and the profit obtained on the working for that period was no less than £438,552, or nearly half a million. These results were arrived at under great disadvantages, arising from the absence of machinery, the prevalence of unskilled labour, and the distance the ore had to be conveyed over unmade roads.

When Sir George Grey left the colony in 1845, having successfully tided it over its enormous difficulties, the whole of the colonists were loud in his praises, although during the period of depression he had met with unmerited abuse and opposition. He had proceeded from first to last in a straight line of policy, with judgment, decision, and firmness, and his reward was in the fact that he had saved the colony from a chaotic state and had placed it on a sound and solid basis. Lord John Russell, in the Imperial Parliament, paid him this tribute:—"I must say that, after four or five years' experience of his administration, he has solved the difficult problem with a degree of energy and success which I could hardly have expected from anyone. He has extricated the colony and gained the good will both of settlers and aborigines."

In 1850 the constitutional clauses referred to in the Act of 1842 were put into force. By the Act of the Imperial Parliament which separated the Port Phillip district from New South Wales, conferred representative institutions on Tasmania and Victoria, and brought all the Australian colonies, except Western Australia, into the same stage of political development, Legislative councils were established in each colony; these bodies were limited to twenty-four members, two-thirds of whom were to be elected, and the remaining third nominated. Power was then given to make laws, to raise taxes, to appropriate public money, and to establish district councils after the formation of Legislative Councils. Further power was given to establish a General Assembly for the Australian colonies, and lastly, with the assent of Her Majesty in Council, to alter the constitution of the respective Legislative Councils if necessary. By 1851 the tide of prosperity had set in, and when in August of that year, the new Legislative Council of South Australia met, the Governor, Sir Henry Young, was able to report that the general condition of the colony was in all respects satisfactory. The population was 63,700, exclusive of 3,730 aborigines. The excess of immigration over emigration during the year was 6,137; the imports were in value £887,423, or about £13 18s. 0d. per head; the exports, £571,348, or more than £8 19s. 0d. per head. There were 102 places of worship in the colony, and 115 schools; 174,000 acres of land were inclosed, and 15,000 square miles of Crown land were occupied by squatters and depastured by sheep and cattle. In that same year came the rush to the Victorian gold-fields, when from 15,000 to 20,000 individuals, including the greater part of the most useful labourers, left the colony and thereby plunged it into another financial crisis.

NEW ZEALAND. New Zealand was discovered by Tasman in 1642 and remained practically unknown until 1769 when Captain Cook visited it, discovered the Strait which divides the islands and still bears his name, landed in various places, left pigs and other animals, which bred and multiplied and became a great boon to early settlers in after years, and took formal possession of the islands, it has been alleged, on behalf of the King, George III.

Cook's published description of the islands excited the enthusiasm of the French Government, which in 1771 sent out two ships under the command of M. Marion du Fresne. The expedition ended in a terrible catastrophe. The commander landed with a party of sixteen, including four officers; they were fallen upon by the savage inhabitants who, without provocation, so it is said, slew and devoured them all. A further party of twelve, unconscious of what had happened, landed and met with a similar fate. Only one was left alive to tell the terrible tale, and when the melancholy facts became known on board the two ships, a strong armed force was at once sent on shore and inflicted

a summary and terrible punishment upon the natives, many of whom were shot down without offering any resistance, apparently paralysed at the fatal effects of the fire-arms. This sad catastrophe led to the abandonment of the object of the expedition, and gave to the French, for a long time to come, an unfavourable opinion of New Zealand as a suitable locality for a colony.

When the nineteenth century was quite in its infancy New Zealand was visited by South Sea whalers, by convicts from the penal settlements, and by adventurers of various kinds, until there sprang up a population of desperate, reckless, and dissolute men, who corrupted the natives, and added to their original savagery the detestable vices of the off-scouring of Europe.

In 1814, a band of missionaries, sent out by the Church Missionary Society under the leadership of the Rev. Samuel Marsden, Senior Chaplain of the colony of New South Wales, settled in the Bay of Islands. The jurisdiction of the government of New South Wales was extended by Act of Parliament to New Zealand and other islands in the Pacific, and Governor Macquarie appointed Mr. Thomas Kendal to be resident magistrate, or British Consul, in the Bay of Islands, not only to protect the missionaries from the natives, but also to protect the natives from the lawless Europeans, who had imposed upon them and treated them with the basest cruelty and injustice.

A brave man was Samuel Marsden. His fame had gone before him through the good offices of one Tuatara, a Maori Chief, to whom the missionary had shown much kindness. Marsden—notwithstanding the fact that only a short time previously the natives had massacred the whole of the crew and passengers of the *Boyd*, a large English merchantman—landed alone; a band of naked warriors, armed with spears and clubs, waited on a hill to bid him welcome, the eager warmth of which was indicated by brandishing their weapons, distorting their already hideous faces, throwing their limbs about in the wildest gesticulations, and filling the air with screams and yells until it seemed as if demons of another world were let loose upon this. It required a nerve of cold blast steel to face alone a welcome of that description.

NEW ZEALAND CHIEF AND GREENSTONE CLUB.

From this time forth for twenty-five years Marsden devoted his life to the welfare of the Maoris. Many difficulties arose from time to time with regard to the purchase of land from the natives, who were recognised on all hands as the rightful owners of the soil. The natives were upright in their dealings, the European adventurers were fraudulent, and the only means the native chiefs had for the redress of their wrongs was by appeal to the commanders of British men-of-war, who occasionally called at the principal settlements to give a semblance of protection to those who needed it, whether natives or Europeans. On one occasion when war was raging between the native tribes, Captain Hobson, commanding H.M.S. *Rattlesnake*, was sent specially by the Governor of New South Wales (Sir Richard Bourke) to offer protection. In reporting on the state of affairs Hobson said: "With British subjects fast accumulating, and every day acquiring considerable possessions of land, it must become a subject of deep solicitude with the British Government to devise some practicable mode of protecting them from violence

and of restraining them from oppression. Heretofore the great and powerful influence of the missionaries has done much to check the turbulence of the native population, but the dissolute conduct of the lower orders of our countrymen not only tends to diminish that holy influence, but to provoke the resentment of the natives, which, if once excited, would produce the most disastrous consequences. It becomes, therefore, a solemn duty, both in justice to the better classes of our fellow-subjects and to the natives themselves, to apply a remedy for the growing evil."

In 1825 an attempt to colonise New Zealand was made through a "New Zealand Company" set going by some well-known merchants under the presidency of Lord Durham (afterwards of Canadian fame), but it proved abortive. In 1837 the scheme was revived, and the "New Zealand Association" was formed,* mainly through the incessant labours of Mr. Edward Gibbon Wakefield. The scheme recognised the sovereignty and independence of the Maoris; foresaw that cession of the whole territory to the British Crown could only be a very gradual process; recommended the establishment of British settlements; and proposed measures for obtaining and disposing of land. This scheme was submitted to Lord Melbourne, who threw cold water upon it; opposition came to it from all quarters, and especially from the Missionary Societies, and finally, Parliament rejected it. In 1838 a further unsuccessful attempt was made to pass a Bill through Parliament for "the establishment of a colony and British authority in New Zealand," promoted by gentlemen who formed an amalgamation of the Colonisation Company, the old Association, and the New Zealand Company of 1825, under the title of the "New Zealand Land Company," with the Earl of Durham at its head. Before any satisfactory arrangement had been made with the Government this Land Company dispatched a ship of 500 tons, the *Tory*, armed with eight guns and with thirty-five souls on board, including Colonel Wakefield as agent, to plant the settlers on lands alleged to have been purchased by the Company.

Meanwhile a curious series of events was happening, which put a new complexion on the affairs both of New Zealand and the Land Company

There arrived in New Zealand in November, 1837, an eccentric Englishman who bore the French title of Baron de Thierry. He proclaimed himself as the "Sovereign Chief of New Zealand," having some seventeen years before purchased, as he supposed, from a native chief named Hongi, who had visited England, an estate of 40,000 acres in exchange for thirty-six axes. The Baron brought out with him to the Colony ninety-three persons, including his secretary, master of stores, and other officers, and soon discovered that his claim to 40,000 acres could not be substantiated, and instead, 300 acres of good forest land were ceded to him. He denied all intention of prejudicing the interests of Great Britain and professed a reliance on moral influence alone for the authority he expected to acquire among the natives. Strange to say, airy as his claims were, they were recognised by the French Government and their ships of war that touched at Auckland were ordered to pay him every respect.

One day in 1838 a gentleman in London called upon Mr. George Fife Angas†—one of the foremost founders of South Australia and a moving spirit in all colonial matters—and introduced himself as Baron de Thierry, brother of the Baron de Thierry who had assumed the title of "Sovereign Chief of New Zealand." He urged upon Mr. Angas the necessity for the British Government to at once assume the sovereignty of New Zealand,

* The Committee consisted, among others, of the Hon. Francis Baring, M.P. (chairman), the Earl of Durham, Lord Petre, Sir W. Molesworth, M.P., Sir G. Sinclair, Mr. W. Hutt and Mr. W. W. J. Whitmore, the latter two having taken part in the colonisation of South Australia.

† See "George Fife Angas: Father and Founder of South Australia," 1891, p. 206.

and gave dark hints of the revival in France of interest in that colony. Subsequently he inadvertently let slip the important information that "the French Government was actually engaged in fitting out an expedition for planting a French colony in New Zealand, and the vessels were expected to be ready for sea in the course of two or three weeks," and later still Mr. Angas found that the Baron was hourly expecting his appointment to the office of French Consul in New Zealand. Promptly, and very properly, Mr. Angas communicated this intelligence to Lord Glenelg, Secretary of State for the Colonies. In the course of his letter he said, "Your lordship is well aware of the great increase of late years of French vessels of war now traversing the South Seas, doubtless with other objects in view than such as are of a merely scientific nature, as well as that the Baron de Thierry and his brother have represented to the French Government the practicability of subjugating the islands of New Zealand with a force of from five hundred to six hundred organized settlers Should New Zealand fall into the hands of a foreign Power, the possession of our colonies in the South Seas would become very insecure, not one of them being in a condition to offer any successful resistance from within, and all of them being entirely destitute of external defences. I need not here remind your lordship that two French vessels easily took possession of and destroyed the English settlement at Sierra Leone, soon after its establishment. It would be superfluous to represent to your lordship the deplorable consequences that must inevitably ensue from the establishment of French settlements on the shores of New Zealand, where the harbours are excellent, and naval stores of every description are ready at hand; and whence at any time, should hostilities unhappily be provoked, an instant stop would be put to the intercourse between the British colonies and New Zealand, Van Diemen's Land, Port Phillip, South Australia, and Swan

River—not to mention the ease with which the British whaling trade might be obstructed, and the certain destruction of our infant commerce with the islands of Australasia and the South Seas—a commerce which, from the gradual civilization of the South Sea islanders, is likely, in a few years, to become of great importance to this nation. Permit me, however, to suggest that at present considerable supplies of grain and naval stores are obtained by the Australian colonies from New Zealand; and that as those colonies are more suitable for the growth of wool than for the production of grain (but for which New Zealand appears admirably adapted), any interruption between those places would be disastrous to our southern colonies."

With as little delay as was consistent with the circumlocution of the Colonial Office and the action of its feeble chief, the Government, acting on the information given by Mr. Angas, and being now well aware of the intentions of France, took immediate steps to secure the sovereignty of the islands, and to this end Captain Hobson was appointed to proceed to New Zealand as "Her Majesty's Consul, and as eventual Lieutenant-Governor of such territory as may be ceded to Her Majesty in the New Zealand islands." The instructions given him by the Marquis of Normanby were clear and emphatic. "You will point out to the natives or their chiefs the dangers to which they may be exposed by the residence among them of settlers amenable to no laws or tribunals of their own, and the impossibility of Her Majesty's extending to them any effectual protection unless the Queen be acknowledged as the sovereign of their country. . . . The chiefs should be induced, if possible, to contract with you, as representing Her Majesty, that henceforward no lands shall be ceded either gratuitously or otherwise except to the Crown of Great Britain. . . ."

Colonel Wakefield, the agent of the New Zealand Company, arrived at Cook's Straits in September, 1839, a few days after Captain Hobson left England, and at once proceeded to purchase land from the natives, paying for it by bartering muskets, cartridges, and gunpowder! Truly the time had come for the intervention of the British Government.

On the 29th of January, 1840, Captain Hobson and his staff arrived in the Bay of Islands, and on the following day made proclamation of his commission in due form. Some portions of that proclamation sent dismay into the hearts of those who were adherents of the New Zealand Company, such, for example, as the following passage:—"All purchases of land in any part of New Zealand, which may henceforth be made by any of Her Majesty's subjects from any of the native chiefs or tribes of these islands, will be absolutely null and void, and neither confirmed nor in any way recognised by Her Majesty."

Shortly afterwards Hobson assembled the chiefs of the Native Confederation and other chiefs, and in the presence of the missionaries and the principal European inhabitants the document known in New Zealand annals as the Treaty of Waitangi (Sounding Waters) was read, agreed to, and signed. It ceded to the Queen of England, "absolutely, and without reservation, all the rights and powers of sovereignty which the said confederation, or individual chiefs respectively, exercise or possess over their respective territories as the sole sovereigns thereof."

This related only to the Northern Island. The authority of Her Majesty over the Southern Island was proclaimed on the ground of discovery. Then Captain Hobson proceeded to deal with the New Zealand Company, whose agent, Colonel Wakefield, had laid out the town of Wellington in the harbour of Port Nicholson as the chief town of the Company; had established a "constitution," and appointed magistrates. Here, as

elsewhere, the authority of the Queen was proclaimed, and the fiction of "independent functions" swept away; the Company's flag was hauled down, and the British ensign officially hoisted.

Captain Hobson had only been two months in the colony when news arrived that the French were approaching, and that their destination was Akaroa in the Middle Island. He at once instructed Captain Stanley of H.M.S. *Britomart* to proceed forthwith to that place and to inform the Commander of the French expedition that the sovereignty of Her Britannic Majesty had been proclaimed over all the New Zealand Islands.

Captain Stanley arrived at Akaroa on the 10th of August, and four days afterwards a French frigate *L'Aube* and the French whaler *Comte de Paris*, having on board fifty-seven French emigrants including carpenters, gardeners, stone masons, labourers, etc., arrived, together with agricultural tools and *six long 24-pounders mounted on field-carriages.* It was a race for a colony, and had not the action of Mr. Angas been followed by the prompt dealing of the English Government, the colony of New Zealand would have been, in all probability, lost to us.

M. Guizot, in his work entitled "France under Louis Philippe," confirms the account we have given. "The convenience," he says, "of securing to our navy a place of rest and refreshment in the South Pacific began to be felt more and more. Public interest took the initiative. Towards the end of 1839, a Company formed itself at Nantes and Bordeaux, to attempt in New Zealand a French colony. It asked and obtained from the Cabinet of that epoch a certain extent of adhesion and co-operation; but when the time for execution arrived it was ascertained that the English had forestalled us in those large islands; that since 1815 they had formed private establishments there which, step by step, were assuming a national character; that in August, 1839, an English officer, Captain Hobson, had sailed for New Zealand with instructions from his Government; and that in the first months of 1840, before the arrival of the French ships, the sovereignty of the Queen of England had been proclaimed there."

Foiled in its purpose, the French Government, ambitious for an empire in the Southern Seas, seized the Marquesas Islands and subsequently took possession of Tahiti and New Caledonia, but they were poor compensations for the loss of New Zealand.

In 1843 the New Zealand Land Company, being unable to give any good title to their lands, suspended their land sales, and as these sales were their sole sources of income, they were eventually obliged to discontinue their colonizing operations altogether. Up to that time they had formed three settlements, Wellington, Nelson, and New Plymouth, and had conveyed to those places 9,000 emigrants. The history of the Company forms the staple of New Zealand history for the next ten years.

"It was beyond all question a Company established on a purely commercial basis, and, whatever the aims and hopes of some of its promoters, it could claim to be treated neither as an independent authority nor as a philanthropic association." One incident only in connection with the company can be told in this place.

Not far from Nelson a memorial column marks the site of the tragic event known in colonial annals as the "Wairau massacre." In consequence of the high-handed policy of the New Zealand Land Company, a dispute had arisen with the natives on the subject of land. A trifling violation of the law on the part of the Maoris resulted, whereupon a party of gentlemen, led by Captain Arthur Wakefield, and accompanied by a magistrate and constables, went forth to seize and imprison the chiefs implicated. They found the Maoris drawn up beside a mountain stream, one of the tributaries of the turbulent Wairau. A preliminary demand for the surrender of the chiefs, during which the constables

exhibited the handcuffs they had brought with them, was of no avail. As the pursuers were advancing to apprehend the chiefs, a shot was fired—whether purposely or accidently was never known—and a native was killed. A skirmish ensued, the result of which was that the colonists had to surrender. Made savage by the losses they had sustained, the natives killed nearly the whole of their prisoners. Not one of the gentlemen escaped, the only survivors of the tragedy being two or three constables, who hid themselves among the long ferns. Captain Arthur Wakefield and about fifteen of the leading inhabitants of Nelson were amongst the slain. The natives asserted that the first fatal shot was by order of the magistrate, at the request of Wakefield, and the evidence of the surviving constables showed that no provocation had been given when the fatal shot was fired. This disaster was a heavy blow to the Company; three successive Governors declined to take any notice of the natives concerned, and ultimately Sir George Grey, when Governor, bought from the natives the land in dispute, and the amount thus paid was charged against the Company by the Government in the final settlement of accounts.

Auckland was proclaimed the capital and seat of Government in 1841; Wellington was founded in the same year, and in 1865 became the capital instead of Auckland. Nelson became famous for its gold. Dunedin, the "Scotch Colony," was founded in 1848, and Christchurch, the "English Colony," in 1850.

MAORI HUTS.

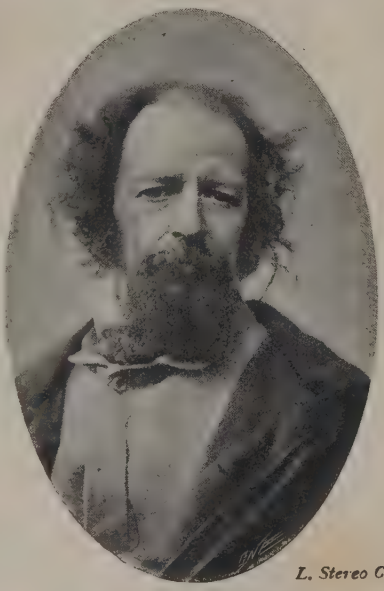
CHAPTER XXX.

LITERATURE.

1837–1900.

AMONG the poets of the reign "the first in honour as the first in place" is Tennyson. It is true that a greater than he—Tennyson frequently declared Wordsworth to be the greatest English poet of the century—lived until 1850 and was Poet Laureate during the last years of his life, but Wordsworth wrote very little during the Queen's reign, and that little was not his best work. "The Prelude" was, however, published after the poet's death, but was written long before, and properly belongs to the beginning, not to the middle of the century. Wordsworth and Tennyson were in one sense contemporaries, and it is a curious illustration of this circumstance that each, on being appointed to the laureateship, went to Court in the same suit of clothes which belonged to a third poet—Samuel Rogers.

Alfred Tennyson was born in 1809 at Somersby Rectory in Lincolnshire, and began to write verses on a slate when a mere child. In 1826 he and his brother Charles published "Poems by Two Brothers," a little volume of immature verse; two years later the brothers went to Trinity College, Cambridge, where their elder brother Frederick, also a poet, was already in residence. In 1829 Alfred wrote his University Prize Poem "Timbuctoo" which, in the opinion of A. H. Hallam, promised fair that the author would be the greatest poet of his generation, if not of the century. "Poems, Chiefly Lyrical" appeared in 1830, and a second volume three years later. A long interval of silence followed, for the poet, ever a most sensitive man, was disheartened by the severe criticisms these two volumes had received, and it was not until 1842 that he published another volume, which was very popular, and fairly established his position. In the judgment of many skilful critics some of these early poems are the best that Tennyson ever wrote, though it is not easy to agree with this opinion in view of all the longer poems he subsequently published. In 1847 "The Princess" appeared, and in 1850, the year in which he married and succeeded Wordsworth as Laureate, "In Memoriam" was given to the world, seventeen years after the death of the friend (Arthur Henry Hallam) to whose memory it is consecrated. In 1854 Tennyson settled "beneath the ridge of a noble down" at Farringford, near Freshwater, in the Isle of Wight, and here he lived continuously until 1870, when, partly to avoid the crowd of



L. Stereo Co.

ALFRED TENNYSON.

summer tourists, who paid little regard to the poet's love of privacy, he built himself another house, Aldworth, under Blackdown, near Haslemere. Crowds and prying visitors were Tennyson's abomination, and once when a friend told him the curiosity of the public was due to his fame,—"Fame" he gruffly replied, "I should like to know what good fame has done any man."

"Maud," published during the Crimean War and reflecting the feelings created by that event, four of the "Idylls of the King" published in 1859, "Enoch Arden" in 1864, and the eight other "Idylls" between 1870 and 1885, complete the list of the longer poems and contain much of Tennyson's best work. His three chief dramas, to name them in the order of publication "Queen Mary," "Harold," and "Becket," were followed by other and less successful plays. In 1884 he was created Lord Tennyson, and on his eightieth birthday in 1889 he received from Robert Browning the last of many letters from the same hand, in which the writer refers to "the universal pride of our country in your glory," and prophecies that "your poetry will be a wonder and delight to all those appointed to come after." Lord Tennyson died at Aldworth in October, 1892, and lies near Browning in Westminster Abbey.

MR. AND MRS. BROWNING'S FIRST VISIT TO ITALY AFTER MARRIAGE.

"By the side of Tennyson we have poets like Elizabeth Browning," wrote Henri Taine, the great French critic, in the preface to the fifth book of his "History of English Literature;" but had that preface been written a few years later Taine would probably have substituted the name of Robert Browning for that of his wife. Robert Browning, like so many of our great English poets, was born in London, and, with the exception of the fifteen years of his married life which were spent at Florence, lived in London. He is often compared and contrasted with Tennyson, but no two men could differ more in temperament and in their poetical work. Tennyson was shy and hated general society, Browning liked company and shone in a drawing-room; in

Tennyson's poems every word is well chosen and in its proper place, his rhythm is always musical and his meaning evident. His work fully realises the wish uttered by an earlier poet and addressed to the Thames nearly three centuries ago :

> "Oh, could I flow like thee and make thy stream
> My great example as it is my theme,
> Though deep yet clear, though gentle yet not dull,
> Strong without rage, without o'erflowing, full." *

Browning, though perhaps the more profound philosopher of the two, wrote many rugged rhymes, left his poems unpolished, and his meaning is often obscure, if not unintelligible, to ordinary readers. One cannot read him without thoroughly appreciating the force of Wordsworth's remark on hearing of his marriage:—"So Robert Browning and Elizabeth Barrett have gone off together. Well, I hope they may understand each other—nobody else could." But in spite of his frequent obscurity Browning was a great poet. His first poem, "Pauline," a drama, was published in 1833, his last, "Asolando," on the day of his death at Venice in December, 1889. In this period of fifty-six years, dramas, lyrics, narrative poems, and at least one epic, "The Ring and the Book," flowed from his rapid pen and fill seventeen goodly volumes. Like many writers, he published too much, but almost everything he wrote was conceived in a noble spirit and bears the stamp of genius.

The married life of the Brownings was singularly happy. Elizabeth Barrett was considerably older than her husband, and at the time of their marriage had been an invalid for years. Her talents were developed at a very early age. She read Homer in the original Greek at ten and wrote an epic when only fourteen. Five years later her first volume, "Essay on Mind, and other Poems," was published; another volume appeared in 1838, and a third which contained "The Cry of the Children," a noble and stirring protest against the wrongs inflicted upon the young in factories, in 1844. In September, 1846, she married Robert Browning at Marylebone Church, and went abroad with her husband. The letters which passed between them during their brief acquaintance before their marriage have been published in two volumes, and afford an insight into the characters of this high-minded and noble man and woman. Their house at Florence, "Casa Guidi," was the resort of their many remarkable friends, and now bears a tablet put up by the municipality of Florence to the memory of Mrs. Browning, who lived just long enough to witness the partial realisation of her ardent wishes for a free and united Italy. Her "Poems before Congress," which are devoted to the attainment of this object, appeared in 1860, and her "Last Poems," edited by her husband, in 1862, the year after her death. "Aurora Leigh," dedicated to her cousin and friend, John Kenyon—"the most mature of my works, and the one into which my highest convictions upon Life and Art have entered"—was published a few years before Mrs. Browning's death.

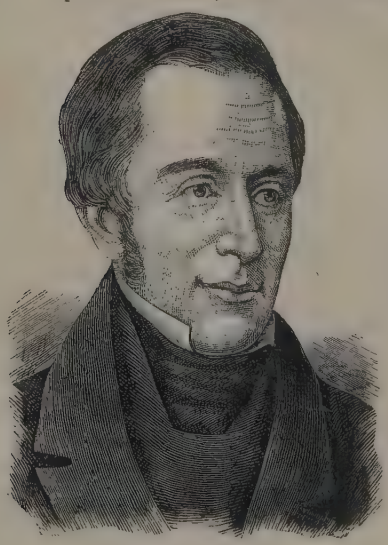
It is said that a sorely puzzled Oxford undergraduate, when asked in his Divinity examination to name the Minor Prophets, declined to do so as he did not wish to draw invidious distinctions, and we will endeavour to follow the good example of this young gentleman by refraining from an attempt to classify such other poets of the Victorian age as have an undoubted claim to mention in these pages. Algernon Charles Swinburne, whose "Atalanta in Calydon" appeared in 1864, possesses great lyrical gifts and is a dramatist of no mean powers. Much controversy has been raised as to the morality of some of his work, his political opinions are held in horror by many, and

* Denham, "Cooper's Hill."

it cannot be denied that he has grievously offended many right-minded people. But his marvellous mastery of words and phrases, his consummate art and his magnificent rhythm, added to his vivid imagination and his powerful genius, have produced work destined to endure. Mr. Swinburne is a critic of no mean order, and was one of the first to recognise the powers of Matthew Arnold, who wrote but little poetry, though all he wrote bears the mark of great ability. Arnold is not a poet for the million, though some of his poems are popular; he is perhaps too refined for ordinary readers. His early friend, Arthur Hugh Clough, to whose memory he wrote a striking elegy, "Thyrsis," has been underrated by his contemporaries, but Mr. Lowell had a "foreboding" that a hundred years hence Clough will be thought to have given the "truest expression in verse of the moral and intellectual tendencies of the period." His "Bothie of Tober-na-Vuolich" is certainly popular and lively, though it contains much profound thought. Dante Gabriel Rossetti, if better known as a painter and the associate of Millais and Hunt in the so-called Pre-Raphaelite school, has written many fine poems, some of which are, however, open to the criticism directed against Swinburne's work, that it is too "fleshly." Rossetti's sister, Christina Georgina, wrote much graceful, delicate, and sensitive verse. The best known of her poems are "Goblin Market" and "The Prince's Progress."

D. G. ROSSETTI (BY HIMSELF).

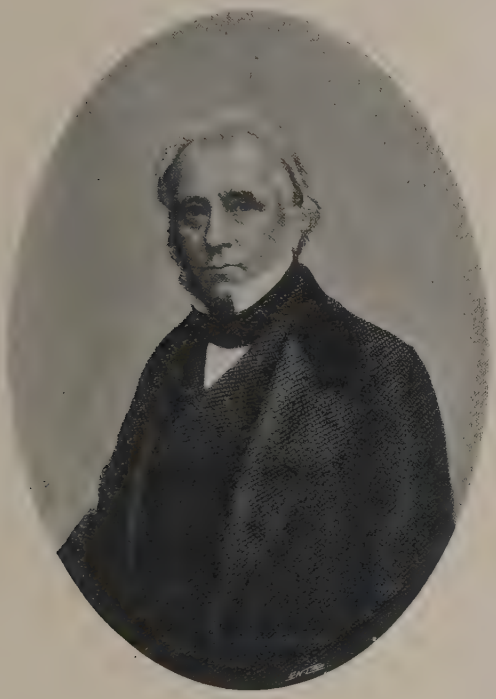
William Morris, socialist, designer of wall papers and of printers' type, and "The idle singer of an empty day," as he describes himself in the introduction to "The Earthly Paradise;" Sir Lewis Morris, a Welshman, and author of "Songs of Two Worlds" and the "Epic of Hades;" and Sir Edwin Arnold, who wrote the "Light of Asia," are among the well-known Victorian Poets. To these names we may add those of Martin Farquhar Tupper, author of "Proverbial Philosophy," which, if not exactly poetry, was one of the most popular books thirty years ago; Philip James Bailey, whose "Festus," if not forgotten, is now seldom read; and Sir Henry Taylor, whose noble drama "Philip Van Artevelde" is still appreciated by the judicious reader. Among writers of humourous verses Barham, the author of "The Ingoldsby Legends," Thomas Hood, Charles Stuart Calverley, Austin Dobson, and Rudyard Kipling have added to the brightness of the period.



TOM HOOD.

If popularity is the test of merit, Thomas Babington Macaulay's name should head the list of historians who have written during the reign of Queen Victoria. Macaulay's first important essay appeared in the Edinburgh

Review in 1824, and he was for many years a frequent and welcome contributor to that journal. The first two volumes of his "History" appeared in 1849. "I purpose to write the History of England from the accession of King James the Second down to a time which is within the memory of men still living," are the opening words of the first chapter, but this purpose was never fulfilled, and Macaulay barely completed the reign of William III. The two volumes won immediate success, and the subsequent volumes added to the author's popularity. The days in which they appeared are still remembered in Paternoster Row, which was crowded by booksellers, messengers, and by many of the general public, all eager to secure one or more of the 25,000 copies which made up the first edition. No such edition was ever published of any work of the same bulk. It weighed fifty-six tons, and while at the binders was insured for £10,000. The last volume of the "History" did not appear until after Macaulay's death in 1859, and is not quite complete. But the entire work is a



LORD MACAULAY.

magnificent history of the reign of James II. and William III. It has, of course, evoked criticism, and a few inaccuracies have been pointed out. With some justice it has been said that it was written to show that Providence was on the side of the Whigs; and many competent judges have demurred to Macaulay's estimate of William of Orange. Too rhetorical for the Dryasdust school and too full of details obtained from pamphlets, newspapers, and the diaries of gossips, it is not now so popular as when it was first published, and for many succeeding years. Yet it still holds the field, and fresh editions have not ceased to appear.

James Anthony Froude is, like Macaulay, a rhetorical and therefore a popular historian, but is sadly inaccurate at times, and his attempt to whitewash King Henry VIII. cannot be counted successful. Froude was the youngest of three remarkable brothers,

Elliott & Fry. *Photo.*

J. A. FROUDE.

one of whom, Richard Hurrell, was a leader of the Oxford Movement, and another, William, an eminent civil engineer. James Anthony was himself for some time under the spell of Newman, but broke away from the Tractarians, and in 1848 published "The Nemesis of Faith," which cost him his Fellowship and drove him from Oxford, to which he returned forty-four years later as Professor of Modern History. From 1848 he devoted himself to literature, and in 1856 issued the first volumes of his "History of England from the fall of Wolsey to the defeat of The Spanish Armada," which he completed in twelve volumes in 1869. The History, though full of blunders, is a most fascinating book, and no reader is likely to forget Froude's account of the death of Mary Stuart, of the defeat and dispersion of the Armada, or some of the sketches of Queen Elizabeth. In addition to his history he wrote many brilliant essays, collected into "Short Studies on Great Subjects," two interesting books of travel, "Oceana," and "The English in the West Indies," and an Irish novel; and, unfortunately, edited "Carlyle's Life and Reminiscences."

E. A. FREEMAN.

Edward Augustus Freeman belongs to an entirely different school of historical writers. Learned, accurate, and painstaking, he wrote nothing he had not carefully studied, nor until after he had consulted every trustworthy authority and personally examined the scenes of the events he proposed to describe. His "History of the Norman Conquest" fills five ponderous tomes, but is far too diffuse for the patience of ordinary readers. His "History of Sicily," left incomplete at his death, is planned on the same extensive scale as the "Norman Conquest," and his "History of the Reign of William Rufus and the Accession of Henry I." Numerous other works came from his pen; he was always on the alert to discover the blunders of Mr. Froude, and exposed them without mercy and too often with a great want of courtesy. For picturesque writers he had a supreme contempt—moderated however as regards Macaulay.

William Stubbs (Bishop of Oxford) is of the same school as Freeman. His carefully annotated editions of the Mediæval Chroniclers deserve the highest praise, and his "Constitutional History of England" is a masterpiece. The mutual admiration of Stubbs and Freeman was great; each fully appreciated the other's work. But in the opinion of many of their contemporaries this admiration was sometimes carried too far, and it evoked from the sarcastic pen of an Oxford Professor a not undeserved epigram:

"Each ladles butter from the other's tubs,
Stubbs butters Freeman, Freeman butters Stubbs."

John Richard Green, the pupil of Dr. Stubbs and Professor Freeman, is best known by his "Short History of the English People," dedicated to his "masters in the study of English History." The book had a great and well-merited success, though

much exception was taken to some of the author's views, and to the manner in which he divided his historical periods. The title gives a clue to the object of the book; it is a history of the people, not of their rulers.

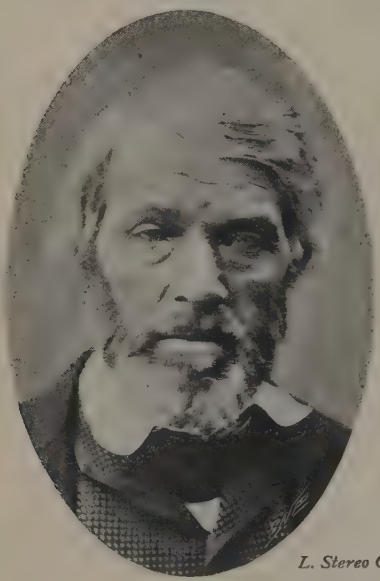
Samuel Rawson Gardiner has dealt in an impartial spirit with the stormy period of the earlier Stuart kings and the Commonwealth, upon which his researches have thrown new light. Earl Stanhope's (Viscount Mahon's) "History of the Reign of Queen Anne" and its continuation "The History of England from the Peace of Utrecht down to the Peace of Versailles," covers the greater part of the eighteenth century. Mr. W. N. Massey and Mr. J. Phillimore have written histories of the reign of George III., but both have been superseded by Mr. W. E. Lecky's "Eighteenth Century."

Coming down to our own day, mention must be made of Miss Martineau's "History of the Peace from 1815;" of Sir Spencer Walpole's volumes dealing with the same period; and of Mr. Justin MacCarthy's "History of our own Times;" Sir William Napier has written an excellent "History of the War in the Peninsula," the first volume of which appeared in 1828, and the last in 1840; and Mr. A. W. Kinglake, a brilliant account of the Crimean War, containing a terrible indictment of Napoleon III.

Mr. George Grote, a London banker, and an early and persistent advocate of the ballot, and Connop Thirlwall, the learned and liberal-minded Bishop of St. David's, both wrote Histories of Ancient Greece, and in later days George Finlay, who took part in the Greek War of Independence, a "History of Greece from the Conquest by the Romans to the Present Time." Dr. Arnold's "History of Rome," and Dean Merivale's "History of the Romans under the Empire," are able works. Mr. James Bryce's little volume "The Holy Roman Empire," originally written as an Oxford prize essay, throws a clear light on a subject previously little understood, and his more recent work on the "United States of America" is decidedly the ablest contribution to a knowledge of that wonderful country that has appeared on this side of the Atlantic. Henry Thomas Buckle did not live to complete his "History of Civilisation in England," a book showing wonderful and comprehensive research, though his theory and conclusions are open to question. Dr. Mandell Creighton (late Bishop of London) wrote a "History of the Papacy from the Great Schism to the Sack of Rome," but, as in the case of Bishop Stubbs, the claims of his diocese extinguished the historian.

The time is not yet come for passing a final judgment on the position Thomas Carlyle will take in the literature of Great Britain, but it will scarcely be denied that he exerted a greater influence, through literature, on the ethical, religious, and even the political beliefs of his time than any of his contemporaries. Born at Ecclefechan, in Dumfriesshire, in 1795, and educated in his native village, at Annan, and at Edinburgh, he contributed articles to the Edinburgh Encyclopædia, in 1822 became tutor to Charles Buller and his brothers, and at about that period wrote a "Life of Schiller," and translated Goethe's "Wilhelm Meister," which led to correspondence with the great German poet and author. In 1826 he married Jane Welsh, and in 1834 moved to London where he settled in the house at Cheyne Row, Chelsea, in which he lived until his death in 1881. Meantime "Sartor Resartus," the most characteristic of all his books, had appeared by instalments in "Fraser's Magazine," but was little appreciated. The discerning few, however, realised that a new writer had appeared who was to influence the best minds of the day, though none could foretell how powerful that influence was to become. Settled in London, Carlyle began to write his "French Revolution," which was published in the first year of the Queen's reign. It is not perhaps, strictly speaking, a history, but rather a series of indelible pictures of the most memorable event in modern history. It

established his fame and relieved him from the dire pressure of poverty. The world was now beginning to learn that a new and mighty prophet had arisen, and when in the following years he lectured on "German Literature," "Heroes," and other subjects, he found audiences fit and not few. These lectures were published and were followed by "Past and Present," in 1843, and by "Cromwell's Letters and Speeches," in 1845. The first of these books contrasted the rule of a Mediæval Abbot in a well-ordered monastery with the terrible state of some parts of England at the time of the Chartist Riots: the second was a complete vindication of the Lord Protector from the charges which ignorance and prejudice had woven against him. The last, and not the most successful, of his important works was "The History of Frederick the Great," which was completed in 1865. In the same year Carlyle was elected Lord Rector of Edinburgh University, but the supreme triumph of his installation in the following April was overclouded by the death of Mrs. Carlyle a few days later. In 1874 Mr. Disraeli, in a letter which did him great credit, offered Carlyle a baronetcy, which was declined. He died in 1881, and was buried beside his own kindred in Ecclefechan kirkyard.



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THOMAS CARLYLE.

John Ruskin, another great teacher of our age, and a master of English prose, was born in London in 1819, and lived at Denmark Hill, Camberwell, the greater part of his life. His father, a well-to-do wine merchant, and according to his son's testimony, "an entirely honest man," gave him an excellent education and he graduated at Oxford in 1842. Mr. Ruskin has told the story of his upbringing in "Præterita," one of the most delightful of autobiographies. In 1843 he published the first volume of "Modern Painters" in which he vindicated with skill and eloquence the artistic truthfulness of Turner, contrasting his methods with those of other painters. In 1849 "The Seven Lamps of Architecture" appeared, and in 1851-53 "The Stones of Venice." These were followed by "Notes on the Construction of Sheepfolds," a somewhat misleading title, as the book dealt with questions of Church Discipline, "Sesame and Lilies" (which contains lectures on literature), "Ariadne Florentina," "Ariadne Pentelica," and

Hills & Saunders *Photo.*

JOHN RUSKIN.

"The Laws of Fiesole," dealing respectively with wood engraving, sculpture, and drawing. In "Unto this Last," Mr. Ruskin attacked the current teachings of political economy, which he calls "the dismal science." His other works are more or less didactic, and though his personal followers are few and his teachings often inconsistent with what he has previously laid down, the charm of his style has always commanded readers, and he has been one of the most powerful forces of his time. For ten years, 1869-79, he was Slade Professor of Art at Oxford, where his lectures, unlike those of most professors, drew large audiences of undergraduates and senior members of the University. Later, he founded the Guild of St. George, intended to be a primitive agricultural community of plain livers and high thinkers, in which old and homely methods were to be followed, handicrafts cultivated to the exclusion of machinery (the founder's abomination) and simplicity to be observed in all things. To this object Mr. Ruskin devoted a large part of his fortune. He lived in retirement at Brantwood, on Coniston Lake for many years and died there on the 20th of January, 1900.

Matthew Arnold's poetry has been mentioned in its place, but his critical work also deserves notice. He has written in clear and beautiful English much that is very distasteful to the ordinary Philistine, and to many Nonconformists, and has persistently advocated the importance of "sweetness and light." Walter Pater is another eminent critic. Philip Gilbert Hamerton's "Intellectual Life" is a permanent contribution to literature, and his sketches of his own life in France have enabled his readers to appreciate the better side of French morals and manners. Edward Dowden has been a skilful expositor of Shakespeare, Wordsworth, and Shelley. William Ernest Henley has shown sound literary judgment as a reviewer, and has written some good verse. George Saintsbury has illustrated the literature of the seventeenth, and Edmund Gosse of the eighteenth centuries. Leslie Stephen's "Hours in a Library," and his "History of English Thought in the Eighteenth Century" must at least be mentioned. He was for some time editor of the "Dictionary of National Biography," a most valuable work of reference, and a stupendous monument of literary enterprise and industry.

MATTHEW ARNOLD.

John Stuart Mill has proved a worthy successor to the great English and Scotch philosophical writers of the last century, and has been a potent factor in political and economical studies. Born in London in 1806, the son of James Mill, the historian of British India, he was educated by his father with unexampled severity, beginning to learn Greek at three and Latin at eight years of age. He never played in a childish or boyish game, and was taught to regard poetry and fiction as abominations. By a happy chance he lighted upon a volume of Wordsworth, which was to him as "balm in Gilead," and later in life became passionately fond of music, though always haunted by a strange fear that the number of possible combinations of musical notes would in time be exhausted, and no further compositions would be possible. He entered the India

office in 1823, where he was for two years the colleague of Charles Lamb, and retired in 1858. His "System of Logic" is probably his most important work and is recognised as a classic. Many of his writings are expositions of the so-called Utilitarian Philosophy, and of the "greatest happiness of the greatest number" theory. In these days, when "we are all Socialists," his essay "On Liberty" might be studied with advantage by way of counteracting prevailing and perhaps impracticable views. Mill sat in Parliament for three years, but did not thereby add much to his fame. He was too much of a philosopher to be a skilful politician, and too fair minded to be a strong partisan.

Henry Fawcett, as a writer on political economy, was a disciple of Mill, though he advocated opinions his master had abandoned. But he will probably be best remembered as a reforming Postmaster-General, as the persistent advocate in Parliament of the claims of the natives of India, and for the noble courage with which he bore the terrible infliction of blindness. Among the political economists of the reign are William Stanley Jevons, Alfred Marshall, and Walter Bagehot, who also wrote on literary subjects.

The greatest scientific name of the reign is Charles Darwin, though other men of science have written with more literary grace. "Our century is Darwin's century," said a German writer at the time of Darwin's death, and from a standpoint of science the statement may be accepted. Darwin, after studying at Edinburgh and Cambridge, sailed in 1831 as naturalist to the expedition of H.M.S. *Beagle*, bound on a scientific survey of South American waters. He returned from the voyage in 1836, and three years later published his "Journal." Shortly afterwards he settled at Down, near Beckenham, in Kent, which was his home during the rest of his life, and devoted himself to careful research and patient observation, which in time led him to form the Darwinian theory of the Origin of Species by means of Natural selection. His famous book on the subject was not, however, published until 1859 and then excited great controversy, which was renewed on the publication of "The Descent of Man" in 1871. Darwin's theory, now very generally accepted, was most unwisely attacked by many persons who were less in earnest than the author in the pursuit of knowledge and truth. Bishop Wilberforce denounced it as a "flimsy speculation," and at a meeting of the British Association at Oxford, treated it with ridicule, for which he was severely rebuked by Professor Huxley. Mr. Disraeli mockingly said that if it was a question whether man descended from apes or angels he was on the side of the angels. Darwin himself took little or no part in the controversy he had raised, but continued his researches and added to the scientific knowledge of his time. His last work appeared in 1881, and early in the following year he died, and was buried in Westminster Abbey.

Elliott and Fry *Photo.*

CHARLES DARWIN.

Thomas Henry Huxley, like Darwin, began his scientific career on one of the Queen's ships, the *Rattlesnake*, sent out in 1847 to explore the Australian seas. He was an ardent supporter of the Darwinian theory, and defended it with such consummate literary skill that it has often been said that had he devoted himself to

literature instead of to science he would have been equally famous. His many contributions to the elucidation of scientific questions are written with such freshness and in so charming a manner that the reader, however unscientific, can hardly fail to be interested. In some respects Huxley was more Darwinian than Darwin himself, and perhaps pushed his conclusions farther than can be justified. He certainly succeeded in stirring up a great deal of controversy.

Darwin and Huxley enjoyed early educational advantages. John Tyndall, whose name is often associated with theirs, was a self-made man. Born in County Carlow of poor parents he was employed as a young man on the Ordnance survey of Ireland, and the officer under whom he served, and who became a distinguished General, used to say that if he had done nothing else for his country he had brought out John Tyndall. Patient in observation like Darwin, and a master of his pen like his friend, Huxley, Tyndall has written on many scientific subjects and some delightful volumes on Alpine climbing.

The scientific writings of three eminent geologists, Sir Charles Lyell, Sir Archibald Geikie, and Sir Roderick Murchison, do not possess the same literary distinction as the writings of Huxley and Tyndall. Nevertheless, they have each made valuable contributions to scientific knowledge.

Mr. Herbert Spencer can hardly be called a popular writer. He has attempted, but with what success few are competent to judge, to work out a complete system of philosophy in harmony with evolution and modern science. In endeavouring to attain this end he has not spared himself, and, as his various books have appeared, they have been welcomed by a few students and have provoked considerable discussion. His little volume on "Education" is, however, admirably suited to ordinary readers, and ought to be read by those who are interested in the training of children and young people.

The Victorian age has been fertile in biographies; indeed in the present day it seems to be expected that the life of every statesman, author, or other public man shall be written at great length as soon as possible after his death. Four large volumes, for instance, have been devoted to details of Dr. Pusey's Life; two to the life of Dr. Newman; and an innumerable host of books to the life of Thomas Carlyle. A long biography is generally a literary failure, and, though it does not necessarily follow that a short biography will be successful, the two best Lives of eminent men that have been published during the Queen's reign are each contained in one moderately sized volume. Stanley's "Life of Dr. Arnold," and Sir George Trevelyan's "Life of Lord Macaulay" have already taken rank with Boswell's "Johnson" and Lockhart's "Scott" among the classical English Lives, and will probably be read by our descendants when the ponderous tomes which record the doings of equally famous men have been forgotten. The Life of Bunyan, by Froude, of Hume by Huxley, of Sir John Eliot, of Landor, and of Dickens by Forster, of Goethe by G. H. Lewes, and of F. W. Robertson by Mr. Stopford Brooke, are of high literary merit. Nor must we forget to mention Sir Theodore Martin's "Life of the Prince Consort," Lord Rosebery's "Pitt," Seeley's "Life and Times of Stein," Mr. John Morley's "Life of Cobden" and "Life of Burke," Masson's "Milton," Mrs. Oliphant's "Edward Irving," and Prothero's "Dean Stanley" as interesting and valuable biographical works.

At the Queen's accession Edward Bulwer Lytton, afterwards Lord Lytton, was the most popular living English novelist. He had made his mark in literature in 1828, with "Pelham," the story of a dandy, in followed by "Paul Clifford," an idealised

highwayman, by "Eugene Aram," an idealised murderer, and by the still popular "Last days of Pompeii," all written in a highly inflated style, but not unsuited to the taste of sixty years ago. "Rienzi," "The Last of the Barons," and "Harold," are historical novels, and Lord Lytton's later works, "The Caxtons," "My Novel," and "What will he do with it?" written in a more sober style, form a trilogy of domestic life. Three of his plays, "The Lady of Lyons," "Richelieu," and "Money," still keep the stage, and many other productions of his versatile pen deserve perusal. In all, he wrote sixty separate works, which fill over a hundred volumes, quite a library in themselves, though few have read them through. Lord Lytton was also a Parliamentary orator, and for a short time Colonial Secretary. He died in 1873, was buried in Westminster Abbey, and his life was written by his son, the second Lord Lytton, who inherited his father's literary talent.

LORD LYTTON.

If Lord Lytton was the most popular novelist in 1837 he was quickly supplanted by a younger man, whose popularity shows as yet little sign of decay. Charles Dickens was born at Portsmouth in 1812, and much of his early experience of life is reflected in "David Copperfield." At twenty-two he became a reporter on the *Morning Chronicle*, and in March, 1836, began to publish the "Pickwick Papers," which have interested and amused two generations. "In the darkest hours of my life," said a well-known Englishman, "that book has never failed to clear the clouds and exorcise the blue devils. Blessed be the name of Charles Dickens."* "Pickwick" was followed by "Oliver Twist," "Nicholas Nickleby"—but why should we catalogue books which everybody knows and reads? Many of the novels were written with a purpose, and were far more effective in bringing about reforms than speeches in Parliament, or the labours of professional agitators. The removal of abuses in the administration of the Poor Law is largely due to "Oliver Twist;" private schools are, happily, no longer Dotheboys Halls; and the Court of Chancery moves with less deliberation and expense than in the days when the slow progress of Jarndyce against Jarndyce was recorded in "Bleak House." In one respect Dickens has differed from most of our great writers of fiction, inasmuch as he takes his characters chiefly from the middle and lower classes of society. It has indeed been said that he failed when he attempted to describe a gentleman, and it has also

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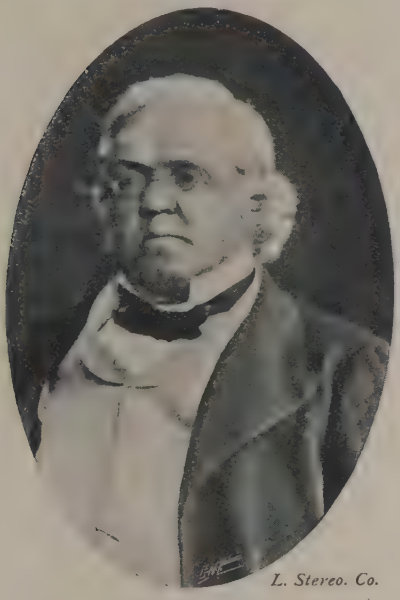
CHARLES DICKENS.

*G. W. E. Russell.

been objected against him that his English is too often slipshod and his grammar defective. But even if these allegations are true they detract little from his supreme merits as a novelist. He is equally skilful in the use of pathos and humour, and the same pen that has caused our sides to ache with laughter at the sayings of Sam Weller, or the absurdities of Mr. Micawber, has brought unwonted tears to the eyes of readers of the death of little Nell, and has excited repellent horror over the end of Fagin.

Dickens also deserves to be remembered as one of the early purveyors of cheap, wholesome literature. We are familiar enough now-a-days with popular magazines, but "Household Words" and "All the Year Round" were successively almost the sole representatives of the present abundant harvest of bright, cheap, and interesting weekly and monthly publications. Dickens died in the zenith of his powers and, like Lytton, rests in Westminster Abbey.

The fame of William Makepeace Thackeray is often compared and contrasted with that of Charles Dickens, but, except that they were contemporaries, there is little in common between the two novelists. Thackeray has more than once proclaimed with characteristic generosity his unbounded admiration of much of Dickens' work, but forty or fifty years ago literary log rolling was little practised, and it never fell in Dickens' way to praise, or criticise, the work of his famous contemporary. If we were to say that Thackeray wrote for the classes and Dickens for the masses, we should fail to express the whole truth, for Dickens was read in the homes of the aristocracy as well as in more modest houses; but Thackeray's writings, at least in his life time, never penetrated very deeply into the middle and lower strata of society. Nevertheless, the future student of the Victorian age will probably get more help from the less read than from the more popular writer. Thackeray, who was a few months older than Dickens, was born in Calcutta, and was educated at Charterhouse,—the "Greyfriars" of some of his novels,—and at Cambridge, though he never took a degree at the University. His first literary effort was an amusing parody of Tennyson's prize poem "Timbuctoo," but his early ambition was towards art rather than literature, and he at one time applied to be allowed to illustrate the "Pickwick Papers" as they appeared. For some years he contributed articles to the Magazines and to "Punch," and in 1847 began "Vanity Fair," which came out, like so many of Dickens' novels, in monthly numbers. As each successive part appeared the interest of the reading public increased, and when "Vanity Fair" was completed it was recognised as a masterpiece, and the author's position was established.



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W. M. THACKERAY.

"Vanity Fair" is a picture of the life and manners of an older generation, but in "Pendennis" and the "Newcomes" Thackeray described the world in which he was actually living. "Esmond," perhaps his greatest novel, describes social life in Queen Anne's day, and in the "Virginians" he has dealt with the period of the American War of Independence. Much has been said of Thackeray's satirical powers, but it would be unfair to regard him merely as a didactic satirist. His heart was singularly tender, and

if he lashed pretentious people and exhibited the snobbery of his time we are indebted to his pen for such noble characters as Henry Esmond and Colonel Newcome, and for many gentle and patient women. In one respect Thackeray was a literary pioneer, for he was the original editor of "Cornhill," the first important shilling magazine that attempted to rival "Blackwood," "Fraser," and other expensive monthlies.

Benjamin Disraeli, Earl of Beaconsfield, will be remembered as a statesman and Parliamentary leader, but he was always proud of his connection with literature, and takes high rank among the novelists of the age. Born, as he said of himself, in a library, the eldest son of Isaac Disraeli, an eminent man of letters, he published his first novel "Vivian Grey" at the age of twenty, but his best works,—"Coningsby," "Sybil," and "Tancred"—belong to the Victorian era. In these stories he attempted to explain the origin of political parties, and the consequent condition of the nation. In 1870 he published "Lothair" for which, it is said, he received £10,000, and in 1880 "Endymion," but these books, though they contained some brilliant sketches, did not add much to his literary fame.

Whatever renown once attached to the name of G. P. R. James was destroyed by Thackeray's amusing burlesques of his novels. But though James is now almost forgotten, our fathers and grandfathers read him with delight, though very few of them ever got through all the one hundred and ninety-eight volumes that proceeded from his pen. His contemporary, Charles Lever, is still read, and "Charles O'Malley" and "Harry Lorrequer" are full of rollicking humour. William Harrison Ainsworth, another early Victorian novelist, produced thirty novels, chiefly historical, and frequently inaccurate as to details; of these "Old St. Paul's," "The Tower of London," "Rookwood," and "Ovingdean Grange" deserve mention.

Anthony Trollope, whose mother was in her day a popular novelist, wrote much, and always in a pleasing, easy style. His Barsetshire Chronicles, "Barchester Towers," "Framley Parsonage," "Doctor Thorne," and others, contain his best work, and are unrivalled as pictures of provincial and clerical life in the middle of the century. Trollope also adventured into other literary fields, and his "Life of Cicero," though much criticised, has been praised by competent judges. For the greater part of his life Trollope was in the service of the Post Office, where he had as a colleague another novelist, Edmund Yates, who is, however, better known as a successful journalist, and as the founder of "The World," the earliest of society newspapers.

CHARLES READE.

Charles Reade was first brought into notice by his "Peg Woffington" in 1852, which was followed by "The Cloister and the Hearth" and "Griffith Gaunt." Later in life he wrote several novels with a purpose, and denounced private asylums in "Hard Cash," Trades Unions in "Put Yourself in His Place," and the abuses of prison discipline in "Never Too Late to Mend." Reade was also a successful dramatist. Wilkie Collins was a prominent representative of the sensational school of novelists, and his "Woman in White"

was, in its day, in everybody's hands. Samuel Warren is another almost forgotten novelist, but his "Ten Thousand a Year," which originally came out in Blackwood, will even now repay perusal, and "Now and Then" and "The Lily and the Bee" are also excellent.

Charles Kingsley's novels are now more popular than when the first of them was published fifty years ago. This is not so much due to their intrinsic worth as to the fact that in "Alton Locke," "Yeast," and "Hypatia," he dealt with questions which are still keenly discussed. Kingsley was one of the little band of Christian Socialists who, under the leadership of Frederic Denison Maurice, did so much to direct attention to many evils in our social system, and of the three novels mentioned, two deal in bold and striking manner with some of these evils. In "Westward Ho" we are taken back to the days of Drake and other Elizabethan adventurers, and in "Hereward the Wake" to the last struggle of the English against William the Norman. Both books illustrate "Muscular Christianity," a phrase their author greatly disliked. Kingsley also wrote some stirring ballads and other poetry, and was a naturalist and a preacher of distinction. His younger brother, Henry, is remembered as the author of "Geoffrey Hamlyn," "Ravenshoe," and other stories.

Among later novelists many critics would assign a foremost place to George Meredith, who has been described as "the Browning of novelists." He wrote for more than forty years, and his pen retained its strength to the last. Sir Walter Besant is a more popular, though a less poetical writer. His first books were written in collaboration with James Rice, a literary partnership which found its fellow in MM. Erckmann-Chatrian on the other side of the Channel. "Ready Money Mortiboy" and "The Golden Butterfly" were joint productions, and since Mr. Rice's death, Sir Walter Besant has written several good stories, one of which, "All Sorts and Conditions of Men," led to the building of the People's Palace in Mile End, which was opened by the Queen in 1877.

Richard Blackmore will be remembered by "Lorna Doone," though he has written other good novels. Thomas Hardy in his powerful Wessex stories has made his native Dorset classic ground. John Henry Shorthouse gained a first rate reputation with "John Inglesant," but has written nothing since that quite approaches the high level of his first book. George Macdonald's "Robert Falconer" and "Alec Forbes" are illustrations of Scotch life curiously combined with liberal theology,—one of the prevailing characteristics of nearly all this author's work. Two novelists, William Black and Robert Louis Stevenson, have also described the life of Scotland. Black's descriptions of the Western Highlands contain many charming pictures and have attracted many travellers to the Hebrides. Stevenson has been more catholic in his choice of subjects. His "Treasure Island," "The New Arabian Nights," and "The Master of Ballantrae" show extraordinary versatility, and a vast number of readers have been thrilled by "Dr. Jekyll and Mr. Hyde."

F. Jenkins *Photo.*
R. D. BLACKMORE.

The present reign has witnessed an abundant harvest of women writers, who no longer approach literature with timid steps as if entering a temple intended only for men, but enter boldly, as entitled by undisputed right. The names of many of these are familiar in our mouths as household words. Charlotte Brontë's powerful novel "Jane Eyre" was published, with a dedication to

Thackeray, in 1847, and was followed by "Shirley" and "Villette." Her sister Anne was the author of "Agnes Grey" and "The Tenant of Wildfell Hall." In the year that followed Charlotte Brontë's death some anonymous "Scenes of Clerical Life" appeared in Blackwood, and excited great admiration. Three years later "Adam Bede," by George Eliot, took the reading world by storm. There was much controversy about the authorship. Dickens detected a woman's hand, and it was soon known that his conjecture was right. "Adam Bede" is probably George Eliot's greatest work. "It is the finest thing since Shakespeare," said Charles Reade, and though such praise is exaggerated, we must admit that "Adam Bede" is in the very first rank of novels. It

R. L. STEVENSON DICTATING TO MR. LLOYD OSBOURNE, VAILIMO, SAMOA.

was not easy to maintain so high a standard, but "The Mill on the Floss," "Silas Marner," and "Romola" are worthy of the authoress of "Adam Bede." "Middlemarch" is not quite the equal of its predecessors, and "Daniel Deronda" shows considerable falling off.

Mrs. Gaskell is best known by "Cranford" and by her "Life of Charlotte Brontë," but "Mary Barton," the story of a factory girl, and "North and South" still find and deserve readers. Mrs. Oliphant was a more voluminous and versatile writer, but, as she herself admits in her autobiography, attempted too much. Her novels contain her best work, and "The Chronicles of Carlingford" are her best novels. "Salem Chapel" in this series contains an accurate and not too flattering picture of Nonconformity in a country town. Mrs. Henry Wood is another voluminous novelist,

and is still a popular favourite. "The Channings," "East Lynne," and "Mrs. Halliburton's Troubles" are the best known of her books. Mrs. Lynn Linton has also been a hard worker, her papers on "The Girl of the Period" created a sensation when they appeared, but are not quite a fair picture of the new woman.

ROBERT LOUIS STEVENSON'S HOME, VAILIMO, SAMOA.

Mrs. Humphry Ward, a niece of Matthew Arnold and granddaughter of Dr. Arnold, possesses the literary ability of her family. "Robert Elsmere," a religious romance, and "David Grieve" were widely read, and if report does not err, were very remunerative to their author. Miss Braddon, Miss Rhoda Broughton, Ouida, Marie Corelli and Edna Lyall are among the most successful of living women novelists.

In books written for children and young people the present generation is most fortunate, and many writers of ability have devoted themselves exclusively to this class of literature. W. H. G. Kingston wrote more than a hundred stories of the sea; Captain Marryat's "Midshipman Easy" and "Peter Simple" are known to most boys, and are not unread by older people. "Tom Brown's Schooldays" has been called the finest boy's book in the language, and has brought the famous work of Dr. Arnold at Rugby to the knowledge of many who would never have read Stanley's life of the great schoolmaster. Mrs. Charles, Miss M. L. Charlesworth, Mrs. Ewing, and Miss Tucker (A.L.O.E.), have written many excellent religious and semi-religious tales, healthy in tone, and full of interest, in both respects an admirable contrast to the mawkish and feeble children's stories of a former time. To the names of these ladies we may add that of Miss Charlotte Yonge, who has also written some excellent novels more adapted for adults than young people.

CHARLOTTE BRONTË.

"Alice in Wonderland" and "Through the Looking Glass" are unique. Their author, Lewis Carroll (C. L. Dodgson) was mathematical lecturer at Christchurch, Oxford, and wrote several text books on mathematics. When "Alice in Wonderland" appeared, Her Majesty the Queen was among the admiring readers, and expressed a wish to have copies of any other books the author had written. To her surprise she received a small parcel of abstruse mathematical treatises. The mention of the Queen's name reminds us that she too was an author, and her "Leaves from a Journal of our Life in the Highlands (1861)," "The Early Days of the Prince Consort," and "More Leaves from the Journal of a Life in the Highlands (1881)," have been widely read, not only for the sake of their author, but also on account of their intrinsic merits.

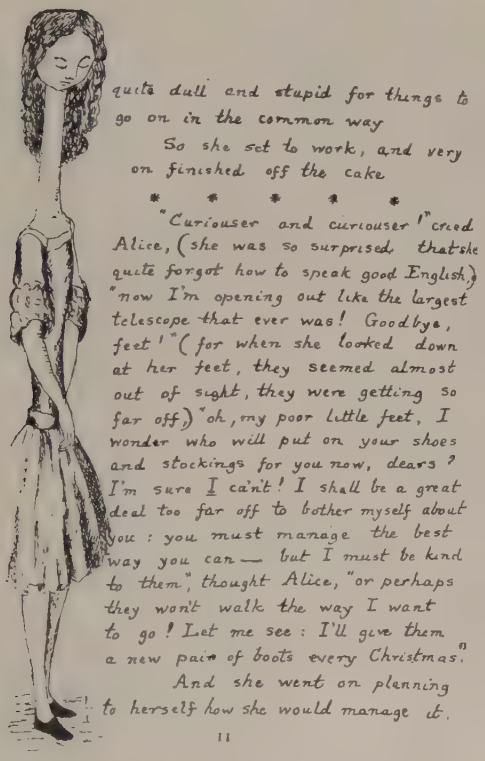
CHEYNE WALK, CHELSEA,
WHERE GEORGE ELIOT DIED

Compared with any previous period of English literature the most striking characteristic of the Victorian age is the immense quantity of books issued from the press, and the large number of authors who have written them. In an excellent book on "Victorian Literature" by Mr. Clement Shorter, written in commemoration of the Queen's Jubilee in 1897, the author has referred to forty-seven historians, fifty-eight poets, seventy novelists, and one hundred and twenty-seven critics, who have written and published during the Queen's reign. His lists do not, of course, pretend

JUDGE THOMAS HUGHES
"TOM BROWN."

to be exhaustive, and many well known and deservedly honoured writers are not even mentioned in the handbook.

Many Victorian writers have already been forgotten and many books, once popular, have disappeared from view, but during the reign of the Queen the high-water mark of literary merit has been attained by not a few writers, and the names of some of them are sure of a place among the immortals. If the age of Elizabeth, and of Anne, the so-called Augustan age of English literature, stand out with peculiar brilliancy in the twelve centuries since Englishmen began to write books, the age of Victoria has established its right to an equal place with the two other famous literary periods.


quite dull and stupid for things to
go on in the common way
So she set to work, and very
on finished off the cake
* * * * *
"Curiouser and curiouser!" cried
Alice, (she was so surprised that she
quite forgot how to speak good English)
"now I'm opening out like the largest
telescope that ever was! Goodbye,
feet!" (for when she looked down
at her feet, they seemed almost
out of sight, they were getting so
far off) "oh, my poor little feet, I
wonder who will put on your shoes
and stockings for you now, dears?
I'm sure I can't! I shall be a great
deal too far off to bother myself about
you: you must manage the best
way you can — but I must be kind
to them", thought Alice, "or perhaps
they won't walk the way I want
to go! Let me see: I'll give them
a new pair of boots every Christmas."
And she went on planning
to herself how she would manage it.
11

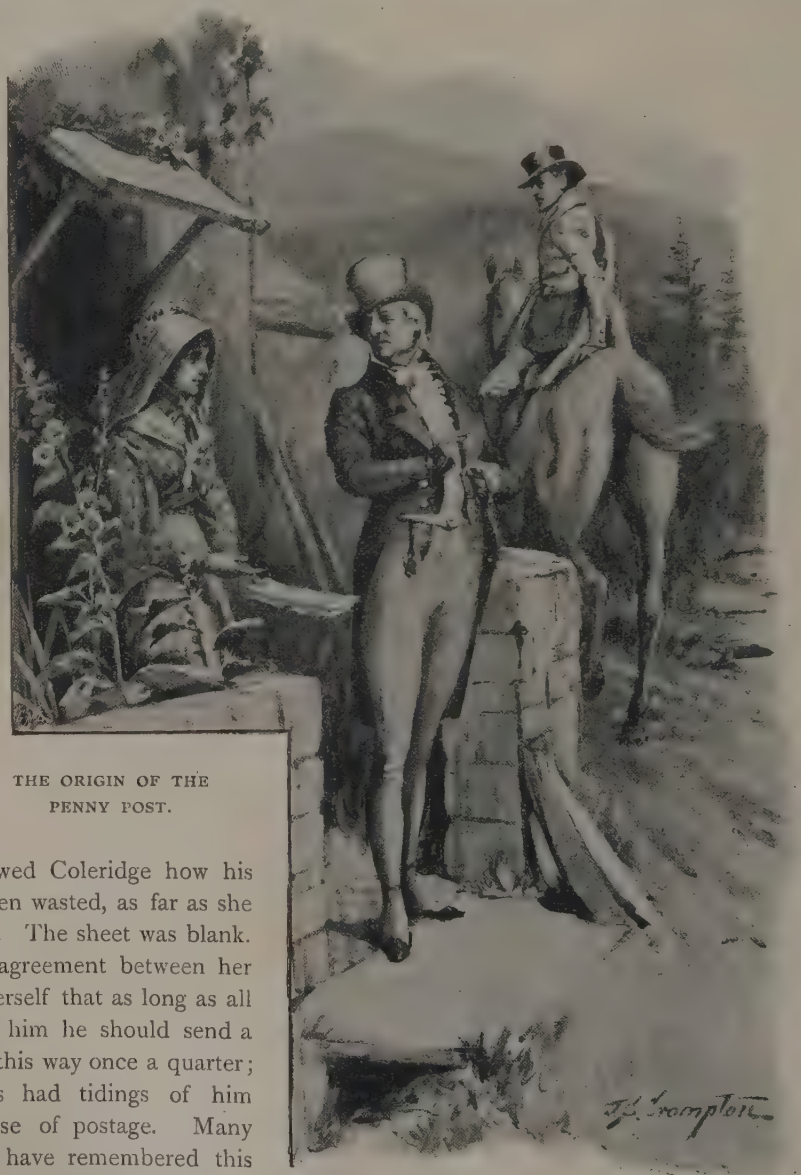
REDUCED FACSIMILE OF MS. "ALICE IN WONDERLAND."

CHAPTER XXXI.

THE MARCH OF EVENTS

1837-1851.

THE idea of a revolution in the postal system had its origin, according to a story told by Miss Martineau, thus :—"Coleridge, when a young man, was walking through the Lake district, when he one day saw the postman deliver a letter to a woman at a cottage door. The woman turned it over and examined it, and then returned it, saying she could not pay the postage, which was a shilling. Hearing that the letter was from her brother, Coleridge paid the postage, in spite of the manifest unwillingness of the woman. As soon as the postman was out of sight she showed Coleridge how his money had been wasted, as far as she was concerned. The sheet was blank. There was an agreement between her brother and herself that as long as all went well with him he should send a blank sheet in this way once a quarter; and she thus had tidings of him without expense of postage. Many persons would have remembered this incident as only a curious story to tell;



THE ORIGIN OF THE PENNY POST.

but there was one mind which wakened up at once to a sense of the significance of the fact. It struck Mr. Rowland Hill that there must be something wrong in a system which drove a brother and sister to cheating, in order to gratify their desire to hear of one another's welfare."

In his childhood Rowland Hill suffered from a spinal complaint, and, as he lay on the floor of his home in Kidderminster, he used to amuse himself by counting until the numbers sometimes amounted to hundreds of thousands. His first start in life was as a teacher of mathematics; later, he found employment for his time and abilities by co-operating with Edward Gibbon Wakefield in his Colonial schemes, and in aiding the work of the Society for the Diffusion of Useful Knowledge, then being carried on under the auspices of Charles Knight. When, therefore, he heard the story told by Coleridge it fell upon prepared ears, and he determined to see what he could do to rectify the abuses in the existing postal system. He found that letter-writing was the luxury of the rich, the cost of postage being prohibitive to the poor. The price to pay for the conveyance of a brief letter to Edinburgh was 1s. 1½d., to Belfast 1s. 4d., to Aberdeen 1s. 3½d., to Brighton 8d., and so on, the prices varying according to distance, weight, and size. Members of Parliament could send a limited number of their own or their friend's letters free of charge by franking them; members of the Government could frank any number of letters and send them free of charge; and as the friends of these men in high places were mostly well-to-do people, they had the privilege which the poor so much more needed. In innumerable details he found the existing system full of errors of principle, economical and otherwise, and as facts accumulated he set to work to oppose it hip and flank. It was a difficult task; the information he required was not easy to obtain; he had to form public opinion, and what was harder work still, to oppose officials who hated the idea of departmental reform. In 1837 he issued a pamphlet entitled "Post Office Reform: its Importance and Practicability," in which, with masterly grip of his subject, he showed that the State habitually overcharged the public; that where a shilling was demanded, less than a penny was all that was needed to meet the outlay and expense; he argued that the sender and not the receiver of the letter should pay the postage—a thing never before dreamt of; that weight, and not the number of pages written, should regulate the cost of transit, and that a uniform charge of one penny should be the rate of postage throughout the United Kingdom.

OLD TWOPENNY POSTMAN.

This pamphlet raised a storm of opposition in the Post Office and in many unexpected quarters. Lord Lichfield, the Postmaster General, spoke of the scheme in the House of Lords, and said that "of all the wild and extravagant schemes he had ever heard this was the wildest and most extravagant;" Colonel Maberley, the Secretary of the Post Office, was so certain that the experiment would fail that he urged his colleagues not to oppose it, but to let it work out its own ruin, and even the keen-sighted Sydney Smith described it as a "nonsensical scheme." Two members of the House of Commons, Mr. Noah Warburton and Mr. Wallace, took an opposite view, and supported Rowland Hill through thick and thin.

A Committee of the House of Commons was appointed to inquire into the condition of the Post Office, and long and harassing examinations were undergone by Mr. Hill, who was, however, so well fortified with damning facts, that the Committee reported in favour of his plans. When, therefore, Mr. Spring Rice, the Chancellor of the Exchequer, brought forward his budget on the 5th of July, 1839, he proposed a resolution:—"That it is expedient to reduce the postage on letters to one uniform rate of one penny, charged upon every letter of a weight to be hereafter fixed by law; Parliamentary privileges of franking being abolished, and official franking strictly regulated; this House pledging itself at the same time to make good any deficiency of revenue which may be occasioned by such an alteration in the rates of the existing duties." To this proposition, seeing

THE MULREADY ENVELOPE.

that there was an Exchequer deficit of three quarters of a million, and that it would involve "the risk of a tremendous loss," Sir Robert Peel and Mr. Goulburn offered stout opposition; but petitions in favour of the scheme had been sent in from all quarters, and public interest had been so warmly excited that, on a division, the resolution was carried by a majority of 102, and the Bill for giving it effect subsequently passed without a division. On the 10th of January, 1840, the penny postal system came into force; in 1839, the last year of the old system, the number of chargeable letters delivered in the United Kingdom was 76,000,000, and the number of franks 6,563,000; in the official year ending March 31st, 1899, the number of letters was 2,186,800,000. In the same year there were besides 382,200,000 postcards, 154,100,000 newspapers and 71,913,000 parcels delivered in the United Kingdom.

Simultaneously with the religious upheaval which we have dealt with in our account of the Oxford Movement (*) there was an extraordinary agitation in the Established

* See page 335.

Presbyterian Church of Scotland, known as the "Ten Years' Conflict." In the former case the controversy was one of theology, in the latter it was a question of Church government—the right of presentation to benefices and the emancipation of the Church from the control of the State in matters of religious faith and practice. The story of the Scottish Movement is briefly this:—In 1712 an Act was passed imposing lay patronage on the Church of Scotland, but, as the years went on, this was felt to be irksome, and in proportion as the religious revival of the early part of the present century increased, the more it was recognised that no pastor should be appointed to a parish against the will of the majority of the congregation, and the Veto Act was passed by the General Assembly of the Church of Scotland to establish this view. This led to appeals from the Ecclesiastical to the Civil Courts, and a long and wearisome conflict ensued, which came to a head in the great Strathbogie case, when 261 out of 300 heads of families in a congregation refused to accept a minister (Mr. Edwards) who had been nominated to have the rule over them. The Civil powers ordained, however, that Mr. Edwards should receive the appointment on trial, and seven ministers agreed to this without consulting the General Assembly. They were brought before the bar of the General Assembly—the highest ecclesiastical Court in Scotland, and a kind of Church Parliament—and on the motion of Dr. Chalmers—the great reformer and most powerful preacher in Great Britain—were deposed from their places in the ministry and their parishes declared vacant.

In 1842, the General Assembly presented a protest to the Queen accompanied by an address, praying for the abolition of patronage, and on March 8th, 1843, the House of Commons declined, by a majority of 135, to entertain this petition on the vexed question of patronage and the right of the Civil Courts in spiritual jurisdiction.

On May 15th of that year a letter from the Queen to the General Assembly, signed by Sir James Graham, the Home Secretary, was dispatched. It ran as follows:—"The faith of our Crown is pledged to uphold you in the full enjoyment of every privilege which you can justly claim; but you will bear in mind that the rights and property of an Established Church are conferred by law; it is by law that the Church of Scotland is united with the State, and that her endowments are secured; and the ministers of religion, claiming the sanction of law in defence of their privileges, are specially bound by their sacred calling to be examples of obedience. The Act ratifying the Confession of Faith, and settling Presbyterian Church government in Scotland, was adopted at the Union, and is now the Act of the British Parliament. The settlement thus fixed cannot be annulled by the will or declaration of any number of individuals. Those who are dissatisfied with the terms of this settlement may renounce it for themselves, but the Union of the Church of Scotland with the State is indissoluble while statutes remain unaffected which recognise the Presbyterian Church as the Church established by law within the kingdom of Scotland."

The General Assembly met in the High Church, Edinburgh, on the 18th of May, 1843, when Dr. Welsh, the retiring Moderator, preached from the words, "Let every man be fully persuaded in his own mind." At the conclusion of the sermon, the Assembly proceeded to St. Andrew's Church, which was fitted up as a temporary Hall of Assembly. Amid breathless silence the Moderator rose and announced that owing to "certain proceedings affecting our rights and privileges" the Fathers and Brethren then gathered together "could not now constitute this Court without a violation of the terms of the Union between Church and State in this land," and proceeded to give a narrative of the rejection of the Claim of Right by the Legislature and the coercion exercised by

the Civil Courts. He concluded by reading the famous "protest" which ended with these words :—"We protest that in the circumstances in which we are placed, it is, and shall be lawful for us, and such other Commissioners chosen to the Assembly appointed to have been this day holden as may concur with us, to withdraw to a separate place of meeting for the purpose of taking steps along with all who adhere to us—maintaining with us the confession of faith and standards of the Church of Scotland, for separating in an orderly way from the Establishment, and thereupon adopting such measures as may be competent to us, in humble dependence on God's grace, and the aid of the Holy Spirit, for the advancement of His glory, the extension of the Gospel of our Lord and Saviour, and the administration of the affairs of Christ's house according to His Holy Word ; and we now withdraw accordingly, humbly and solemnly acknowledging the hand of the Lord in the things which have come upon us, because of our manifold sins, and the sins of the Church and nation ; but, at the same time, with assured conviction that

Sir George Harvey, P.R.S.A.

"LEAVING THE MANSE."

(From Painting in the National Gallery, Edinburgh.)

we are not responsible for any consequences that may follow from this our enforced separation from an establishment which we loved and prized, through interference with conscience, the dishonour done to Christ's crown, and the rejection of His sole and supreme authority as King in His Church."

When Dr. Welsh had finished the reading of this protest he laid it upon the table, turned, and bowed to the Marquis of Bute—the Lord High Commissioner—and proceeded along the aisle to the door of the church. "Dr. Chalmers had been standing immediately on his left ; he looked vacant and abstracted while the protest was being read ; but Dr. Welsh's movement awakened him from the reverie ; seizing eagerly upon his hat, he hurried after him with all the air of one impatient to be gone. Mr. Campbell, of Monzie, Dr. Gordon, Dr. Macdonald, and Dr. Macfarlane followed him. The effect upon the audience was overwhelming. At first a cheer burst from the galleries, but it

was almost instantly and spontaneously restrained. It was checked in many cases by an emotion too deep for any other utterance than the fall of sad and silent tears. The whole audience was now standing gazing in stillness upon the scene. Man after man, row after row, moved on along the aisle, till the benches on the left, lately so crowded, showed scarce an occupant. More than four hundred ministers, and a still larger number of elders, had withdrawn."

The procession, consisting of about 1,000 persons walking three abreast, passed on to the large hall at Canonmills, where the New Free Assembly was formally constituted and Dr. Chalmers elected Moderator with great enthusiasm.

It was thus that on the 18th of May, 1843, the ancient Church of Scotland was rent in twain. Whatever may be thought of the movement there will be no difference of opinion as to the heroic spirit of self-sacrifice which animated these four hundred ministers as they stepped forth from St. Andrew's Church, leaving their all in this world—their incomes, their positions, their homes—behind them for ever.

Two important questions were settled in the early forties, one, marking an epoch in the history of Parliamentary procedure, the other, affecting the interests of all literary men.

In 1839, Messrs. Hansard, the Parliamentary printers and publishers, had issued a report of the Commissioners appointed to inquire into the state of our prisons, in which report it was alleged that many of the prisoners were found reading certain obscene books published by one J. J. Stockdale. Stockdale at once started an action in the Queen's Bench against Messrs. Hansard for libel, and claimed £20,000 damages. It was pleaded that the reports were published under the authority of the House of Commons, but the Lord Chief Justice (Mr. Denman) considered that "the authority of the House of Commons would not justify the publication of a libel." He held that the authority of Parliament was supreme, but not the authority of the House of Commons singly. "Most willingly," he said, "would I decline to enter upon an inquiry which may lead to my differing from that great and powerful assembly. But when one of my fellow-subjects presents himself before me in this court demanding justice for an injury, it is not at my option to grant or to withhold redress. I am bound to afford it him, if the law declares him entitled to it. Parliament is said to be supreme; I most fully acknowledge its supremacy. It follows then that neither branch of it is supreme when acting by itself." A jury was summoned to assess damages and £100 was awarded to Stockdale. This decision was upheld by the Law Courts, while the House of Commons stood up resolutely for its privileges.

A further action was brought by Stockdale against Messrs. Hansard in the same year, claiming £50,000 damages, and the under-sheriff, before whom the case was heard, awarded £600 damages. Messrs. Hansard then appealed to the House of Commons for protection from penalties incurred in carrying out its orders, and the sheriffs of London, who had been ordered to seize and sell some of the property of the Hansards and had delayed doing so, were summoned to appear on the 17th of January, 1840, before the Court of Queen's Bench to show cause why they had failed in this respect. On the day before (the 16th) the House of Commons took the Hansard's petition into consideration, and Lord John Russell, supported not only by the most prominent members of his own party, but also by Sir Robert Peel, Lord Stanley, and Sir James Graham, maintained that the House was bound to support its own printers, who had acted under its authority

in the publication of the alleged libel. On the 17th, Stockdale was committed to the custody of the Serjeant-at-Arms for contempt of the House and high breach of privilege in bringing his actions; later, he and his attorney, the sheriffs of London, and others, were brought to the Bar of the House and were committed to prison. The position of the House of Commons was one of great embarrassment; still more so was that of the sheriffs, who were in this dilemma, that if they obeyed the order of the Court they would sin against the privilege of Parliament, and if they obeyed Parliament they would sin against the Law Courts. The question almost exclusively occupied Parliamentary and public attention for some months, the general opinion being that it was simply a "struggle between the rights of individuals and what appeared the arrogant claims of the House of Commons to over-rule law and order and all civil rights."

In a debate in the Commons on this absorbing privilege question Sir Robert Peel, supporting the Ministry, contended "that whatever privilege was necessary for the proper and effectual discharge of its functions the House of Commons possessed; that the particular privilege of free publication not liable to be questioned by a Court of Law was absolutely necessary; and that there was no security for the proper and effectual discharge of their privilege unless they were enabled by their own declared power to vindicate it."

To put an end to the troublesome and undignified contest, Lord John Russell brought in (March 30th, 1840), a Bill "to afford full protection to all persons employed in the publication of Parliamentary papers," the preamble of which set forth "that whereas it is essential to the due and effectual discharge of the functions and duties of Parliament that no obstruction should exist to the publication of the reports, papers, votes, or proceedings of either House, as such House should deem fit, it should be lawful for any person or persons against whom any criminal proceedings on account of such publication should be taken, to bring before the Court a certificate of the Lord Chancellor or the Speaker, stating that it was published by the authority of the House, and the proceedings should at once be stayed."

This excellent measure passed into law on the 14th of April, and has worked without further difficulty. It was a law imperatively required, for, as Sir Robert Peel pointed out, the abolition of the slave trade, factory legislation, and other philanthropic movements, which demanded the exposure of cruelties and abuses, could never have been carried out without it. Since 1840, the publication of Parliamentary reports has not been hampered, and any and every question has been made known without restraint and without fear or favour, a privilege that has been very beneficially used.

The second question—affecting the interests of all literary men—related to copyright. Copyright, or as it was formerly termed, "copy," was defined by Lord Mansfield as signifying "an incorporeal right to the sole printing and publishing of somewhat intellectual, communicated by letters," which definition may be taken for what it is worth, but it needs much explanation. Blackstone says "When a man by the exertion of his rational powers has produced an original work, he seems clearly to have a right to dispose of that identical work as he pleases, and any attempt to vary the disposition he has made of it, appears to be an invasion of the right."

It is generally supposed that a common-law right of copy existed in England long before there was any statute on the subject. Certain it is that in the reign of Queen Anne, an Act was passed providing that the authors of books already printed, and those claiming under the author, should have the sole right and liberty of printing them for a term of twenty-one years and no longer; and that the authors of books to be printed, and their assigns, should have the same right for fourteen years and no longer, and after

the expiration of those fourteen years the same right should return to the authors, if living, for another fourteen years. This Act was supplemented by another (54 George III, cap. 156), which provided that the author of any book and his assigns should have the sole liberty of printing and reprinting such book for the full term of twenty-eight years, and if the author should be living at the end of that time, for the residue of his natural life. This state of the law was, of course, extremely unsatisfactory, and Mr. Serjeant Talfourd (the author of the tragedy of *Ion* and other plays), who represented the Borough of Reading from 1835 to 1841 repeatedly brought the need of reform before Parliament. It was high time that something should be done. "Sir Walter Scott had lately departed amidst pecuniary difficulties which all regretted, and distresses with which the whole nation sympathised. The sale of his works was the only resource left to his family; and the copyright of the most important and profitable of them, the Waverley Novels, would shortly expire, unless the legislature interposed to prolong its duration. Wordsworth, now just beginning to obtain the tardy recognition of his genius, was likely to have the harvest which that genius was about to reap, snatched from him by the same cause. Southey, who was in a similar position, had been deterred from publishing a great work by the apprehension that the fruit of his labours would be gathered by some adventurous bookseller. Charles Dickens, now at the height of his reputation, was actively pressing the measure. But perhaps there was nothing that influenced the House more powerfully than a characteristic Petition addressed to it by Thomas Carlyle, a writer of books, which though presented in 1839, was not allowed to be forgotten by the advocates of the proposed change."*

Carlyle's petition for sixty years copyright was not granted, and in 1842 Lord Mahon brought in a Bill to extend the term of copyright in a book to twenty-five years from the death of the author. In Committee it underwent various modifications, Mr. Macaulay arguing strongly in favour of the period of copyright being fixed at forty-two years, or the death of the author, whichever was the longer period, on the ground that the other periods proposed would either have the effect of checking the reproduction of certain popular works, or giving undue protection to the early and immature writings of men of genius. Eventually, in the same year, the Act of 5 and 6 Vic. cap. XLV, known as "Talfourd's Act," was passed, and is the law which in the main has ever since regulated literary property throughout the British dominions. This law gives the copyright of a work exclusively to the author for the whole term of his life, and to his heirs for seven years after his death. If, however, the author should die within forty-two years of the publication of his work, then the copyright continues to his heirs till the whole period of forty-two years from the publication of the work has expired, if it does not expire until at least seven years after his death.

In the first half of the century wonderful discoveries and inventions succeeded each other with such rapidity that it is only possible to glance at a few of them without making any claim whatever to a comprehensive description.

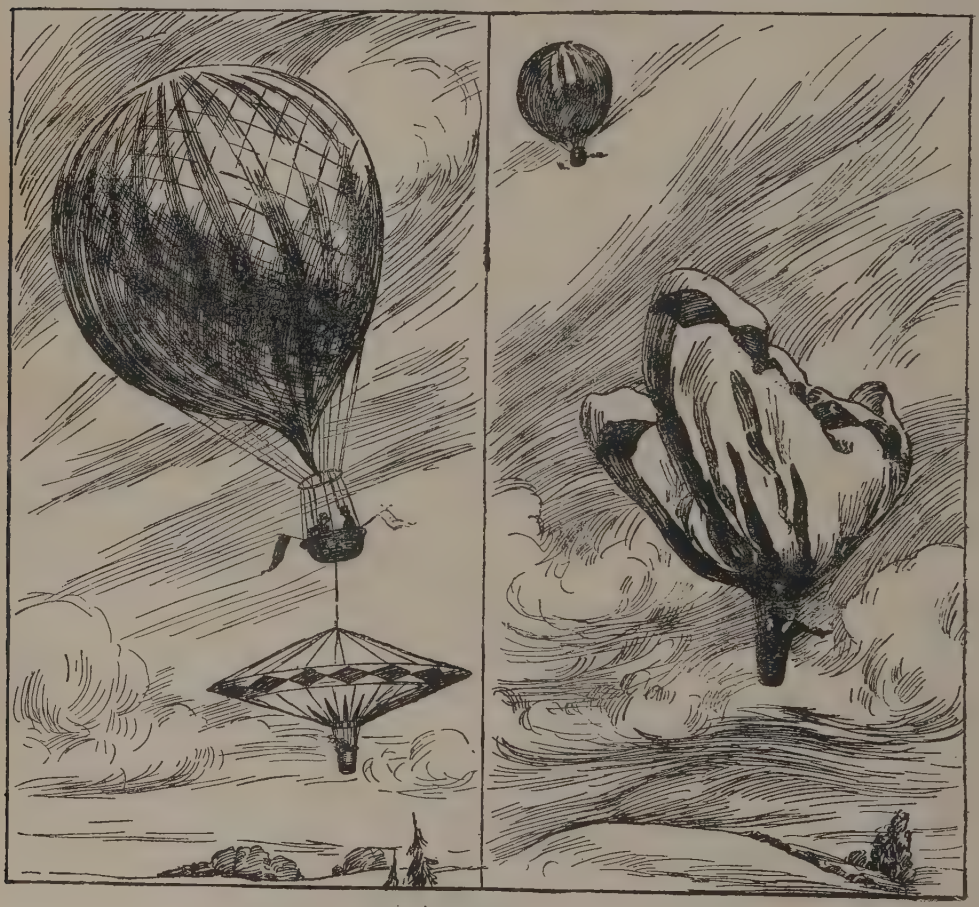
How to attain empire in the air, how to make aërial navigation possible, has for some centuries been a keen desire of men of science as well as of common showmen. The Brothers Montgolfier, in 1783, ascended in a balloon from Versailles, and all France, from Louis XVI, to the merest street boy, went crazy on the subject. In the same year Pilâtre de Rozier projected a journey in cloudland, but the King opposed it and suggested that two condemned criminals should occupy the car. This so offended

* Molesworth's History. Vol. II. page 82.

de Rozier that he told the King "it would not be right to show such honour to criminals," and the King yielding, de Rozier and the Marquis d'Arlande were the first to undertake a lengthened journey, followed, still in that year, by MM. Charles and Robert, who reached a height of 10,000 feet in a balloon filled with hydrogen gas.

In the following year the craze extended to this country, and the first balloon ascent ever made in England was undertaken by an Italian, Vincent Lunardi, who ascended from the Artillery ground in Finsbury, and descended near Ware in Hertfordshire.*

In 1812, James Sadler attempted to cross the Irish Channel, but his balloon dropped in the sea, and the captain of a passing vessel found that the only way in which he could rescue the aeronaut was to run his bowsprit smartly through the balloon. It was



COCKING'S PARACHUTE, 1837.
From a contemporary print.

not until 1836 that definite journeys were attempted, when Mr. Green (who made over 1,300 ascents in all) succeeded in crossing the Channel, and landing in the heart of Germany after a journey of 500 miles in eighteen hours.

The parachute was invented by a Frenchman, M. Garnerin. He was imitated in England by a man named Robert Cocking, who, in 1837, ascended from Vauxhall

* It is recorded that the King was holding a Cabinet Council with Mr. Pitt and most of the other ministers in attendance, when it was unceremoniously broken up in order that the progress of the balloon might be watched, the King remarking, "We may resume our deliberations at pleasure, but we may never see poor Lunardi again!"

Gardens with Mr. Green, his parachute being attached to the car of the balloon by a rope forty or fifty feet long. At a height of 5,000 feet Cocking severed the rope, and the balloon, suddenly released from a weight of 393 lbs., shot up in the air like a rocket, and the parachute, unable to resist the pressure of the atmosphere, collapsed round the inventor and came thundering to the ground, where his lifeless body, almost buried in the earth, was discovered by some farm labourers.

For a long time the balloon was of little practical use, until Mr. Glaisher devoted years of study to make it serviceable, and has left a remarkable volume containing the result of his observations.* On one occasion he ascended to a height of 37,000 feet, or upwards of seven miles—two miles higher than the highest mountain in the world—within the space of one hour.

Since Glaisher's day aerostation has been a worthy science. It will be remembered that in the Franco-Prussian War the gallant M. Gambetta, on the 7th of October, 1870, made his escape from besieged Paris in a balloon; how in that and subsequent wars, postal communication was made possible by the same means, and how in 1899, M. Andrée started in a balloon to solve the mystery of the North Pole, and has never been heard of since.

In 1839 (September 7th) M. Daguerre's new "invention for taking pictures" was publicly exhibited in the Quai d'Orsay, Paris, by order of the Minister of the Interior. The *Journal des Débats* described the apparatus and process, and the French Academy reported on the invention, "that the pictures of the camera lucida could be rendered permanent." The first experiment in England was made on the 13th of the same month and year, when M. St. Croix exhibited the instrument and process in presence of a select party of scientific men and artists, and succeeded in producing a picture of the place of meeting, No. 7, Piccadilly.

Of the many marvellous discoveries of the century, Photography is entitled in many respects to take its rank among the most remarkable. It does not perhaps produce the same practical effects upon the social condition of the human race that the steam-engine and the electric telegraph have done, nor does it bring such mitigation to human suffering as the discovery of chloroform—although one of its latest developments, the X or Röntgen rays, has greatly assisted surgery;—but it occupies a unique position in the perfect novelty of its results, and their more direct connection with the world of mind. The work which Davy, Wedgwood and Boulton began (‡) was not an improvement of what had gone before, but was a new thing. It forced the sun to write down his record in enduring characters, so that those living or to come might read it. It gave a new kind of vision that can penetrate into the distant or the past—a retina, as faithful as that of the natural eye, but whose impressions do not perish with the wave of light that gave them birth. Photographs regarded as evidence of that which they represent, differ in essence from any other species of representation that has ever been attempted. They are free, so far as their outlines are concerned, from the deceptive and therefore vitiating element of human agency. The work of the artist may be more beautiful, but it can never be so exact. An American philosopher, Professor Hitchcock, advanced the theory that the scenes that passed upon this earth thousands of years ago have not really perished; but that the waves of light which left the earth then are still vibrating in illimitable space, and might even now be striking, in some far-off fixed star, an eye sensitive enough to

* "Travels in the Air." By James Glaisher, F.R.S.

‡ See page 123.

discern them. Be that as it may, the practical value of photography in a thousand varied forms is unquestionable. Let one amusing instance suffice. In the early days of photography a thief bethought himself that it would be a good speculation in his way of business to steal one of a photographer's lenses, a kind of booty which would pay as well as a couple of dozen spoons. Accordingly he went in to have his portrait taken, duly sat for it, and when the photographer retired to develop the plate, he walked off with his plunder in his pocket. Unluckily he had not reflected upon the consequences of the few seconds he had spent in front of the lens he coveted. The photographer had obtained a good likeness of him, and the means of identifying him were, of course, speedily placed in the hands of the police to his great discomfiture.

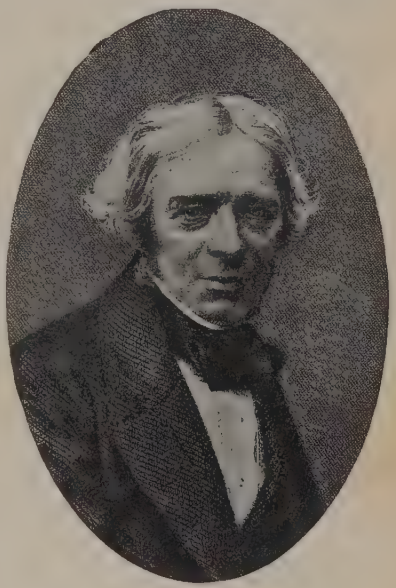
Some of the early stages of photography may be briefly catalogued. Almost simultaneously with the invention of the Daguerreotype process, Mr. Henry Fox Talbot discovered the process of obtaining pictures in the camera by the agency of light on paper coated with chloride and nitrate of silver, and also of fixing them when so obtained. This calotype process, as it was called, was patented in 1841. New photographic processes were invented from time to time, notably by M. Niepce de St. Victor who introduced the use of albumen, by Mr. Scott Archer who introduced the wet collodion process (1851), Dr. Hill Norris who introduced collodion dry plates (1856), Messrs. Sayce and Bolton, who invented collodion emulsion dry plates (1864), Dr. R. L. Maddox who discovered that glass plates could be coated with an emulsion consisting of bromide of silver contained in gelatine (1871), and Mr. Bennett whose gelatine dry plate process came into general use about 1880. To some later developments of photography we shall refer in a future chapter.

DAGUERRE.

He would be a rash man who would volunteer to name the greatest scientist of the nineteenth century, but among the inner circle of the great, Michael Faraday, the famous chemist, occupies one of the highest positions. He has taught us so much that we fail to recognise how ignorant we were when he began his stupendous labours in 1829. "Caloric was a substance filling up the little pores left between the solid particles of material bodies, wedging them asunder or expanding them when poured in, and when again it was squeezed out they collapsed. Light was a thing emanating from luminous centres, striking against obstacles, and thrown back from smooth surfaces, as a ball is reflected from the wall of a racket-court. Electricity was another fluid, or sometimes a couple of fluids of opposite sorts—one resinous and the other vitreous ; and jars were filled with the one and emptied of the other by dexterous processes of mere manipulation. Magnetism was a mere special peculiarity or eccentricity of a few sorts of matter, which were able to infect some other kinds of matter by rubbing or long cohabitation ; and, instead of being a law of general condition, might be called a monomania, with which certain kinds of matter were possessed. It was this unknown world of physical insanities that formed the region of Faraday's discoveries and conquests.

He first illuminated this dark region by the radiance of his luminiferous imagination; he next attacked it with strong batteries of well-organised experiment; and, having thus forced an entrance and established a sure footing, he never rested until he had put the whole province of chaos by logical method into order, harmony, and obedience to law."*

Faraday, following on the lines of Dalton, taught us the unity of nature; that all truth is but one; that all nature is the offspring of concordant thought; that in nature there is no scale of great and small; that the region of physical science and the region of chemical science are one. "The region of Faraday's discoveries, which entitle him to the gratitude of the human race, is mainly that mid-region between exact physical science and empirical chemistry. His great theorem is this: The things which seem so different are the same under different aspects; and the forces of matter which seem so opposite are but the same forces acting under different conditions; one matter, one force, one law, in infinite variety of development."



FARADAY.

That was an important day in the history of scientific discovery when at a meeting of the Council of the Royal Institution (November 5th, 1845), Mr. Faraday announced a discovery tending to show that light, heat, and electricity are merely modifications of one great universal principle. The discovery was, that a beam of polarized light is deflected by the electric current, so that it may be made to rotate between the poles of a magnet. Thus the problem which had long disturbed science as to the power of magnetizing iron by the sun's rays received satisfactory elucidation from the experiment of Mr. Faraday.

In the identification of magnetic influence with the electricity of the voltaic pile, and with the dry electricity of the common electric machine, Faraday played a great part, and the place which electrical influence now holds as a physical agent and faithful servant of the human race arose to a great extent out of his discoveries.

He did not contribute largely to the inventions which controlled the laws he had discovered; he threw broadcast pregnant seeds of truth into the minds of men ready to cultivate them for human convenience. "It was enough for him when he fathomed the secrets of nature, and dragged out of the recesses of matter a divine and luminous thought. That men should use these hidden forces as instruments of thought and knowledge, and make an iron wire 4,000 miles long, the vehicle by which a human thought should be propelled in the form of a magnetic wave through a space equal to the radius of the earth, in a single oscillation lasting only a few seconds of time, is one of those marvels of science which no daily familiarity can render less seemingly impossible. . . Faraday was one of a small band who added to our scientific knowledge a whole continent of truth, who have done for the future peace and wealth of the nation more than conquerors of kingdoms, or heroes of battle fields."†

*J. Scott Russell, F.R.S. (Macmillan's Mag., Vol 18, page 184.)

Bogardus. Saxton. P Cooper. Henry. Ericsson. Bigelow.

Dr. Morton. Colt. McCormick. Goodyear. Mott. Dr. Nott. Sickles. Morse. Burden. Hoe. Jennings. Blanchard. Howe.

The impetus given by Faraday and others to the study of electricity, produced some marvellous inventions for its practical application. In 1837 the first electric telegraph was constructed on the Blackwall Railway, and step by step it came into general use, until in 1851 there was laid down the first submarine electric telegraph connecting England with France—the first successful attempt to effect instantaneous communication between countries separated from one another by wide and stormy seas. A few years later the bold conception followed of laying an electric cable across the Atlantic. To-day "there are no less than fourteen lines across the Atlantic, while all the other oceans have been electrically bridged so that messages can be sent to almost any part of the globe at a speed which far surpasses the imaginary power of Shakespeare's goblin Puck, who boasted that he could put a girdle round about the earth in forty minutes." And so, across all lands and seas, and in a thousand varieties of form and use, the mysterious agency which man has subjugated, obediently fulfils his commands.

Progress in engineering science went on apace during the second quarter of the century, and daring deeds were done which seemed little short of miraculous. Let one example suffice. On the pier at Sunderland was a lighthouse ; the sea made a breach in the pier, and the pier had to be lengthened. To accomplish this it was requisite either to take the lighthouse down, or to carry it a distance of 475 feet, to a spot 1 ft. 7 inches higher, at the end of the new pier, and it was necessary to carry it round a corner, and turn it partly round to suit its new situation ; a task from which the mightiest Genie of oriental fable might have shrunk appalled. The mode in which this was effected was as simple as it was ingenious, and at the risk of being too technical, we give the details. "Holes were first cut through the building north and south a little above the foundation, and timbers passed through them and wedged tightly up against the masonry. The same operation was repeated east and west, and, alternately supporting each portion in succession, a complete platform of timber was placed under the building. Each portion of this was again supported in succession by screws and wedges, and eight lines of rails were inserted and over these eight baulks of timber, to the underside of which were attached 144 little wheels, each five inches in diameter. Another platform was inserted under the lantern and tied to the lower platform by a chain inside the tower, and straps of iron outside ; and great shores from the outriggers of the lower platform completed the cradle in which the building was supported. It was then pushed and pulled by screws 28 feet northward, when the railway and the wheel baulks were taken out one after the other, and reversed, and it was then drawn by winches 447 feet eastward, at an average rate of 33 feet per hour ; but at one time it was moved 84 feet in one hour. The light was never extinguished, and no hitch or accident occurred, though the building was 69 feet 7 inches in height (of masonry), and weighed 338 tons. And such is the familiarity since acquired with works of that class that twice the dimensions, or thrice the weight, would hardly make an engineer pause if asked to undertake such an operation."*

On the 1st of May, 1845, Hungerford Suspension Bridge was opened to the public without ceremony, but with much interest and curiosity, for between noon and midnight 36,254 persons passed over it. Hungerford was at that time the great focus of the Thames Steam Navigation, the embarkation and landing exceeding two millions per annum. The bridge was the work of Sir I. K. Brunel, and was a fine specimen of engineering skill. There were three spans, the central one between the piers being

* "Progress of Engineering Science," Quarterly Review, Vol. 114, page 311.

676 feet, or 110 feet more than the Menai Bridge, and second only to the span of the wire suspension bridge at Fribourg, which is nearly 900 feet. It was built without any

OLD HUNGERFORD BRIDGE.

THE TUBULAR BRIDGE, MENAI STRAITS.

scaffolding, with only a few ropes, and without any impediment to the navigation of the river. The entire cost of the bridge was £110,000 raised by a public company.†

More wonderful than the Hungerford Suspension Bridge was the Tubular or hollow-girder bridge erected by Robert Stephenson across the Menai Straits, connecting Anglesea with the mainland of North Wales. The Britannia Tubular Bridge, which was in process of building from 1846 to 1850, consists of two enormous tubes or hollow beams laid side by side, one for the up and the other for the down traffic of the railway, and each extending to about a quarter of a mile in length. It is not probable that any more bridges of the same kind will be constructed as its weight is three times greater than that of an ordinary girder-bridge of the same strength.

† The bridge was taken down in 1863 and the chains were carried to Clifton for the Suspension Bridge erecting there. The bridge of the South Eastern Railway at Charing Cross occupies the site of the old Hungerford Bridge.

In 1845 there was great excitement in naval and military circles, consequent upon Professor Schönbein's experiments with his gun cotton before the Chairman of the East India Company and a number of scientific persons. A rifle charged with 54½ grains of gunpowder sent a ball through seven boards, each half an inch in thickness, at a distance of forty yards ; the same gun, charged with forty grains of the cotton, sent the ball into the eighth board ; and with a fresh rifle the ball was sent through the eighth board at ninety yards. This was the beginning of a series of inventions and discoveries for destroying human life which has gone on without interruption to the present day.

At the same time that the experiments for destroying life were in progress, the medical world was interesting itself in new methods for preserving it and for subduing pain. In November, 1846, a great stir was occasioned by the publication of a letter in the public press written from Boston, U.S.A., regarding the discovery made by Dr. Jackson and Dr. Martin of the beneficial use of ether in surgical operations : "I found on my arrival here a new thing in the medical world, or rather the application of an old thing, of which, I think, you will like to hear. It is a mode of rendering patients insensible to the pain of surgical operation by the inhalation of the vapour of the strongest sulphuric ether. They are thrown into a state nearly resembling that of complete intoxication from ardent spirits, or of narcotism from opium. This state continues but a few minutes—five to ten—but during it the patient is insensible to pain. A thigh has been amputated, a breast extirpated, and teeth drawn without the slightest suffering. The number of operations of various kinds, especially those in dentistry, has been very considerable, and I believe but few persons resist the influence of the agent."

One of the first to make use of sulphuric ether was James Young Simpson, of Edinburgh, one of the first physicians of his day, and he soon became convinced that other therapeutic agents might be used with even better effect. He succeeded in introducing chloroform, a fluid discovered and described at nearly the same time by Soubeiran and Liebig. It seems almost incredible, but nevertheless it was a fact, that Simpson was strongly opposed on almost all sides. The public press charged him with putting a premium on crime by his discoveries, that assassination would become of daily occurrence, and that it would be applied to every criminal purpose. Others affirmed that the inhalation of chloroform produced so strong a semblance of death that victims would be daily buried alive. The strongest opposition of all came from the religious public, who declared that it was in direct opposition to Scripture "to avoid one part of the primeval curse on woman," and from pulpit after pulpit it was denounced as 'impious.' Simpson wrote some strong pamphlets in defence of the blessing which he had brought into use. "My opponents forget," he said, "the twenty-first verse of the second chapter of Genesis. There is the record of the first surgical operation ever performed, and that text proves that the Maker of the Universe, before He took the rib from Adam's side, *caused a deep sleep to fall on Adam.*"

Simpson was on the winning side, and the greatest battle of science ever fought against human suffering was won. Chloroform was administered to the Queen, practitioner after practitioner adopted it, and Simpson lived to see the blessing acknowledged and in almost universal use.

In other branches of science progress was being made continually. In 1846 a marvellous scientific feat was accomplished in the discovery of the planet Neptune, the most remote of the known planets. It had long before been observed that the planet Uranus (supposed, up to that time, to be the outermost planet of our system) deviated at a certain part of its orbit from the curve in which it previously moved, and this led to

the conjecture of the German astronomer Bessel (1840) that these perturbations were due to the existence of a planet outside Uranus. Two young astronomers, M. Leverrier, of Paris, and Mr. Adams, of the University of Cambridge, commenced almost simultaneously, but quite independently, a series of most difficult and recondite mathematical calculations, and they arrived at conclusions nearly identical with regard to the position occupied by the supposed planet. Acting upon the information afforded by Leverrier, M. Galle, of Berlin, succeeded in pointing his telescope on the planet on the night of the 23rd of September, 1846; and on the 1st of October, Professor Challis announced that, proceeding on the calculations that had been communicated to him by Mr. Adams, he had discerned it on the night of the 12th of August. Priority of discovery seems, therefore, to have belonged to the English astronomer, but priority of publication to his French confrère. The merits of the two discoverers were equal, and each had conducted his own investigation throughout, independently of the other.

There was a local tradition in Asiatic Turkey that Nineveh (mentioned in the Bible, in the books of Genesis and Jonah), the ancient capital of the Assyrian Empire till about 606 B.C., when it was burned by Babylonian and Median conquerors, lay buried on the left bank of the Tigris, opposite Mosul. No recorded effort of any kind to verify the truth of this tradition was made until 1841, when M. Botta, the French Consul at Mosul, made the first excavations in the vast mounds existing in the neighbourhood of Koyunjik, and the valuable relics of antiquity he discovered were duly transported to the Louvre. In 1845, and again in 1849, Mr. (afterwards Sir Henry) Layard commenced his valuable researches, which were subsequently continued by the trustees of the British Museum. Layard explored the great angle formed by the Tigris and the Zab, and from the mounds of Koyunjik, where M. Botta had made his first discoveries, he excavated the palaces of Sennacherib, Assurbanipal, and Esarhaddon. He traced the outworks, moats, and defences of the ancient city of Nineveh (described on the inscriptions as Ninua), and the walls which stretch along the Tigris for two and a half miles. The wonderful remains of ancient art excavated by Layard were deposited in the British Museum, and form an invaluable treasure. Later researches were instituted by the proprietors of the *Daily Telegraph*, and then by Government, in which Mr. George Smith met with considerable success. Later still Mr. Rassam carried on the work of discovery, while in the decipherment and translation of the cuneiform inscriptions, Sir Henry Rawlinson, Mr. Henry Fox Talbot, Mr. George Smith, Professor A. H. Sayce, and others, rendered most important service.

A. H. LAYARD.

We will now turn to events relating more immediately to the social life of the country. Duelling was in full force during the early years of the Queen's reign, and it was one of the first subjects to which the Prince Consort turned his serious attention after his naturalisation. He proposed that quarrels between gentlemen should be settled by the arbitration of Courts of Honour, and although he was not able to carry out his scheme his personal influence did much to suppress the foolish and degrading practice. In 1843 an association of noblemen and officers in both branches of the Service was formed to suppress duelling, on the ground that it was "sinful and irrational." Public feeling was aroused, and in the following year the War Office issued articles on the subject, declaring "that it is suitable to the character of honourable men to apologise and offer redress for wrong or insult committed, and equally so for the party aggrieved to accept frankly and cordially explanation and apologies for the same." This important declaration gave the death blow to duelling in almost its last stronghold, the Army.

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ONE OF THE LAST DUELS.
Fought near the "Brecknock," July 3rd, 1843, between Lieut. Munro and Lieut-Col. Fawcett.

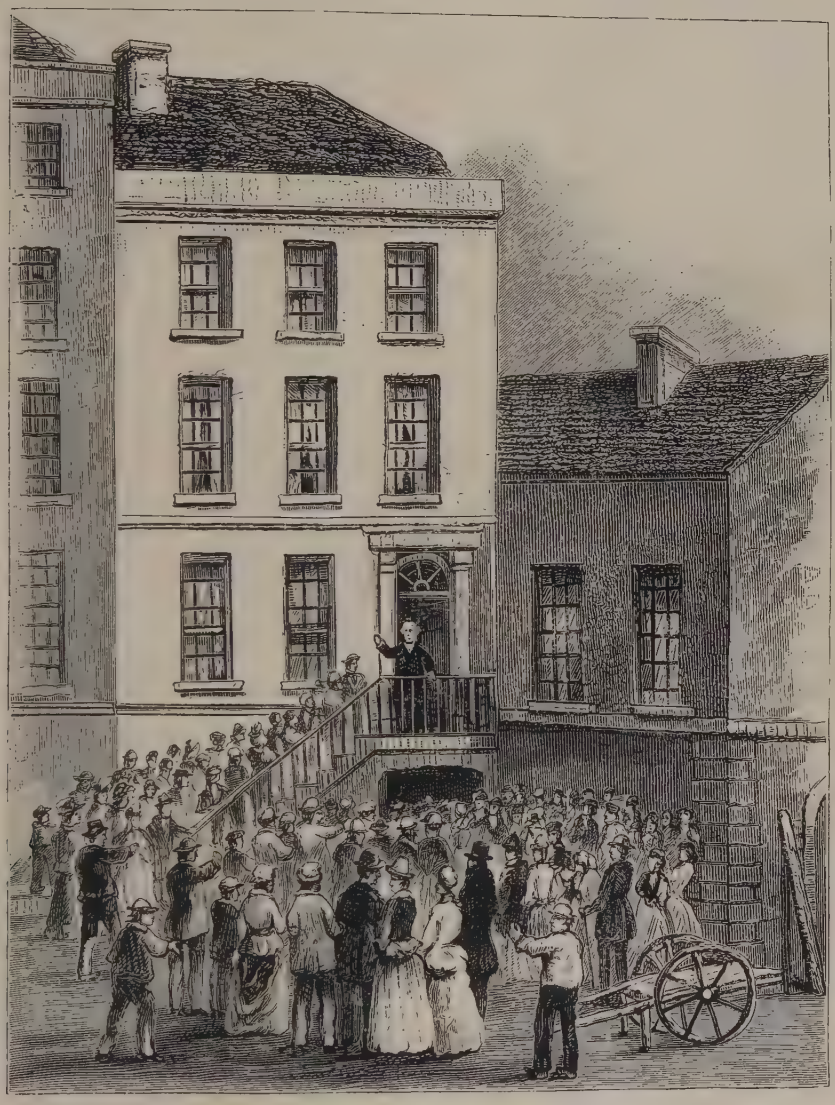
In 1836 a most beneficial law was passed in the interests of prisoners accused of felony. Hitherto a felon had never been allowed to have Counsel to defend him. Although the prosecution might be carried on by the ablest advocates at the Bar, the defendant—perhaps a poor ignorant man who did not know how to put a sentence together—was compelled to plead his own cause. Two Bills to abolish this injustice had been thrown out by the House of Lords, but in 1836 the new Bill happily fell into the hands of Lord Lyndhurst and was successfully passed. Speaking in its support, he said "Distinctions are drawn even between different classes of crimes, which do not seem to rest on any rational foundation. Treason, the highest of all crimes, and misdemeanour, the lowest kind of offences, are placed on the same footing. In both of them the prisoner is allowed the benefit of Counsel to address the jury on the facts of the case; and yet in the intermediate class—that of felonies—the same privilege does not exist. Thus, certain offences regarding the coin constitute only a misdemeanour when committed for the first time, but become felony in case of a previous conviction. The consequence is, that a man may be tried for a first offence as a simple misdemeanour and his Counsel may address the jury: if he is found guilty, and immediately tried upon a second indictment for a similar offence, it is now felony; his Counsel can no longer address the jury; they can only examine witnesses and speak to points of the law."

Another humane Act passed in 1836 was to abolish the law which had up to that time been in force, and required that persons convicted of murder should be executed the next day but one after their conviction, unless that day should happen to be a Sunday, in which case they would be executed on the Monday. In the interval between the sentence and its execution they were to be fed on bread and water, and no person was to have access to them except the gaoler, the chaplain, and the surgeon. The old Statute containing these provisions was repealed; a much longer period was allowed to elapse between conviction and execution, the relatives and friends were allowed to visit the condemned person, and, as readers will remember, many lives have been spared from the utmost penalty of the law in consequence of that extended interval.

In 1842 the Fleet and Marshalsea Prisons were closed. The prisoners were removed to the Queen's Bench Prison, under the authority of an Act passed in the previous session. There were seventy in the Fleet and three in the Marshalsea. A Bill for the abolition of imprisonment for debts under the amount of £20 had received the royal assent by commission on the 9th of August, 1844, and came into operation the day following, on which several persons who had been confined in prison for debts below that amount were set at liberty. It was not until 1869 that the Act for the abolition of imprisonment for debt—coupled with a retention of imprisonment for fraudulent and certain other kinds of debt—was passed, after having been called for in vain for many years.

In 1839 the Rev. Theobald Mathew, popularly known as "Father Mathew," organised a temperance crusade on a scale never before attempted. He already exercised a powerful influence over the Irish people for his fame in organising an institution in Cork on the model of the Society of St. Vincent de Paul, for visiting the sick and distressed, and when a temperance society was formed in that city, he became its president, and threw himself into the work with such astonishing energy that in a few months he obtained 150,000 adherents in Cork alone. He organised great temperance demonstrations at Limerick. On one of the days the crush of people was so immense that the cavalry, called out to preserve order, were swept off the ground. Thousands

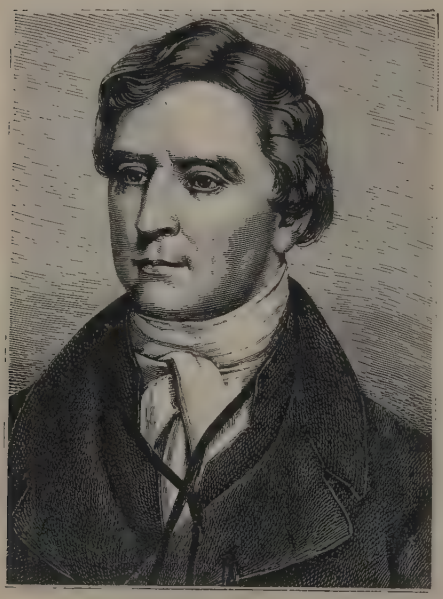
were anxious even to touch the hem of his garment. At Nenagh 20,000 persons took the pledge in one day, and 100,000 at Galway in two days. After making a royal progress through the West of Ireland, the "Irish Apostle of Temperance" came across to London, where he created almost as great a sensation as in his native land. He



FATHER MATHEW AT CORK.
From a contemporary print.

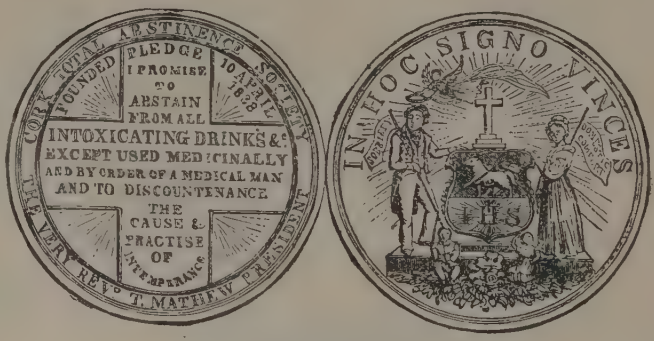
administered the pledge at various meetings in and around London, and on the 23rd of August, 1843, visited Greenwich, and was received by about 20,000 people on Blackheath. Publicans and other persons interested in the Licensed Victualling trade attempted an opposition display. His services in the cause of religion and humanity were recognised by the State, and a pension of £300 a year was granted him from the Civil List. He died in 1856. This great crusade had many of the characteristics of

a religious revival, and may be ascribed to that mysterious sympathetic influence by which it is well known whole communities have often been swayed, but which cannot well be defined. Periodically, since the days of Father Mathew, similar crusades have been started, have been carried on with wild enthusiasm, and have died a natural death.



FATHER MATHEW.

In a filthy and disreputable part of London, known municipally as Field Lane, but popularly as "Jack Ketch's Warren," from the largeness of its annual contribution to the gallows, a little band of laymen, mostly poor, and all apparently uninfluential, opened a school in 1841 for the benefit of the waifs and strays, the vagabonds and the outcasts of that unsavoury neighbourhood. It was named the "Field Lane Sabbath School, 65, West Street, Saffron Hill." Charles Dickens visited it, and has thus described his visit: "I found the school in an obscure place called West Street, Saffron Hill, pitifully struggling for life under every disadvantage. It had no means; it had no suitable rooms; it derived no power or protection from being recognised by any authority; it attracted within its walls a fluctuating swarm of faces, young in years, but youthful in nothing else, that scowled hope out of countenance. It was held in a low-roofed den, in a sickening atmosphere, in the midst of taint, and dirt, and pestilence; with all the deadly sins let loose, howling and shrieking at the doors. Zeal did not supply the place of method and training; the teachers knew little of their office; the pupils, with an evil sharpness, found them out, got the better of them, derided them, made blasphemous answers to Scriptural questions, sang, fought, danced, robbed each other—seemed possessed of legions of devils. The place was stormed and carried over and over again; the lights were blown out, the books strewn in the gutters, and the female scholars carried off triumphantly to their old wickedness. With no strength in it but its purpose, the school stood it all out and made its way. Some two years since, I found it quiet and orderly, full, lighted with gas, well whitewashed, numerously attended, and thoroughly established."


CORK TOTAL ABSTINENCE SOCIETY
FOUNDED
PLEDGE
I PROMISE TO ABSTAIN FROM ALL
INTOXICATING DRINKS &
EXCEPT USED MEDICINALLY AND BY ORDER OF A MEDICAL MAN AND TO DISCOUNTENANCE
THE CAUSE & PRACTISE OF INTEMPERANCE
THE VERY REVD T. MATHEW PRESIDENT
IN HOC SIGNO VINCES

FATHER MATHEWS' MEDAL.

The example set by the good laymen who opened the school in West Street was followed by others, and in Westminster, Whitechapel, Camberwell, and other places notorious for disreputableness, filth, and crime, there were set up other "Ragged Schools"—the name was given by Charles Dickens—and great success attended them. But there were tens of thousands of deplorably ignorant and wretched thieves and vagabonds distributed throughout the metropolis. "They swarmed the streets; they gambolled in the gutters; they haunted the markets in search of cast-away food; they made playgrounds of the open spaces; they lurked under the porches of public buildings in hot and wet weather; and they crept into stables or under arches for their night's lodging. They lived as the pariah dog lives, and were treated much in the same way; everybody exclaimed against the nuisance, but nobody felt it to be his business to interfere." It soon became evident that instead of having separate and independent schools in different localities to deal with the great problem that each school had to face, it would be wiser to have some federation — some head quarters — where all important questions could be discussed and united action taken. So one night in 1844 a band of forty superintendents and teachers, called together by one Mr. R. S. Starey, met in a hayloft over a cowshed in the centre of what was then known as the Rookery of St. Giles, and then and there they formed themselves into the now world-known Ragged School Union. A few months later the philanthropic Lord Ashley was elected president of the Union, an office he retained till the end of his life in 1885. Within ten years the Committee of the West Street School, which was typical of dozens of others that were brought within the Union, were able to report that they had established "A Free Day School for infants; an evening school for youths and adults engaged in daily occupation;

FRONT VIEW OF HOUSES—WILD COURT, SEVEN DIALS.

From a Sketch in Report of Common Lodging Houses, presented to both Houses of Parliament by command of Her Majesty, 1855.

a women's evening school for improving character and extending domestic usefulness, thereby making better mothers and more comfortable homes; industrial classes, to teach youths tailoring and shoemaking; employment in the shape of wood chopping, as an industrial test for recommendation to situations; a home for boys when first engaged in places, apart from unwholesome contamination; a night refuge for the utterly destitute; a clothing society for the naked; a distribution of bread to the starving; baths for the filthy; a room to dry clothes worn in the rain during the day; Bible classes, under voluntary teaching, through which nearly ten thousand persons of all ages, but of one class—all in a state of physical and spiritual destitution—had heard set forth the glad tidings of salvation; various prayer meetings, quarterly conferences for Committee and teachers for minute examination into the detailed working of the institution; a school missionary to supply the spiritual wants of the sick, to scour the streets, to bring youthful wanderers to the school, and to rescue fallen females from paths of sin; and a Ragged Church for the proclamation of the Gospel and the worship of God." This was a goodly programme but it only set forth one aspect of the gigantic work these heroic people undertook. They had in course of time to deal with questions that led to important legislation; and any one who walks in the streets of London to-day, remembering the state of things half a century ago, can see for himself what wonderful reforms they initiated.

At that period youthful crime was greater than it had probably ever been before. Youths, whose ages ranged from fourteen to twenty-four, were shown to constitute less than a tenth of the population, while in point of fact they committed no less than a fourth part of the crime. It was stated on high authority that in London alone there were over 30,000 lawless and deserted children, quite distinct from the ordinary poor. A statement, compiled in 1847 from the reports of the Metropolitan Police, gives some startling figures. In that year there were taken into custody 62,181 persons of all ages and of both sexes. Of these 20,702 were females, and 41,479 were males, whereof there were under twenty years of age, 15,698; between ten and fifteen, 3,682; under ten, 362. Of the whole 62,000, 22,075 could neither read nor write, and 35,227 could read only, or read and write very imperfectly. Out of these 62,181 persons taken into custody there were no less than 28,118 who had no business, trade, calling, or occupation whatsoever.

Springing out of the labours of the Ragged School Union were movements and enterprises that have effected an enormous amount of good, namely, the establishment of Refuges and Industrial Classes; night refuges for casual vagrants; permanent refuges for educational purposes which led eventually to the Industrial School System under the jurisdiction of the Home Office department, the National refuges for homeless and destitute children; the foundation of Training Ships for boys who wished to follow a sea-faring life, their head quarters being in the *Chichester* and *Arethusa*, old war-ships granted by the Government and still to be seen on the Thames. Homes were established for the training of boys for colonial life, and girls' refuges were organised for training girls for domestic life. As the Ragged School Union came more and more into public favour questions of legislation were brought forward, and steps were taken to provide for the voluntary emigration of certain young persons of both sexes who had been educated in the schools, while the Youthful Offenders Bill and other legislative enactments were instrumental in reducing crime, which, during the last thirty or forty years has decreased no less than 75 per cent.

From October, 1848, to October, 1849, London was in a state of great anxiety, owing to an alarming outbreak of cholera, which grew in violence as the summer of the latter year approached. A Board of Health was appointed, with Lord Ashley, Lord Carlisle, Mr. Edwin Chadwick and Dr. Southwood Smith as commissioners, and they found that wherever neglect, depression, vice, or poverty, pressed down the population, there the pestilence raged with its retributive and warning arm; that the sins of omission and commission were revisited on the lives of those who perpetrated or permitted them; and that "foul drains, overflowing cesspools, fetid waters, overcrowded lodging houses, damp cellars, and ill-ventilated rooms attracted the pestilence, which then spread to the houses of the better classes and to the mansions of the rich."

All who could afford to escape from London to the seaside and the country did so; those who had to remain in the midst of the plague suffered from terrible fear and anxiety, while, within the year, there were no fewer than 15,000 deaths. It was from this time forth that philanthropists and social reformers took up with great enthusiasm such subjects as the means for procuring a better water-supply, legislation for extra-mural interment, the enforcement of vaccination and smoke-abatement, the regulating of the dwellings of the poor as regarded ventilation, drainage, over-crowding, and other sanitary matters, until in 1854 the Public Health Act was passed, which led to the destruction of several of the fever-haunted "rookeries" in some of the lowest parts of the metropolis; the raising of model lodging houses and much other useful legislation to be hereafter referred to.

In 1850 the Protestant spirit of England was profoundly stirred. On the 24th of September, the Pope issued a Bull abolishing the Administration of Roman Catholics in England by Vicars Apostolic, and appointing instead, two archbishops and twelve bishops with territorial districts distinctly marked out. Dr. Wiseman was created the first Archbishop of Westminster and was raised to the dignity of a cardinal, and in this capacity he sent to England the notorious Pastoral, dated "From out of the Flaminian Gate at Rome," a document which inflamed the Protestant fervour of the country a hundredfold more than the Papal Bull. Writing as though England had been restored to the Romish communion, and ignoring the English Church and its episcopate, he said "The great work is complete. What you have long desired and prayed for is granted. Your beloved country has received a place among the fair churches, which normally constituted, form the splendid aggregate of Catholic communion. Catholic England has been restored to its orbit in the ecclesiastical firmament from which its light had long vanished; and begins now anew its course of regularly-adjusted action around the centre of unity, the source of jurisdiction, of light, and of vigour."

J. R. Herbert, R.A.

CARDINAL WISEMAN.

This was more than our Protestants could stand; for some time past Papal encroachments had been regarded with great disquietude; the Oxford Movement had resulted in the secession of Newman and other distinguished clergymen and laymen to the Church of Rome, and the expectation that England would go back to the darkness of pre-Reformation times and follow the footsteps of these seceders to Rome, had been openly discussed both in London and in Rome.

So the cry of "No Popery!" rang out through all the land. The Prime Minister, Lord John Russell, dealt some sturdy blows at his Tractarian foes, and in the famous letter written to the Bishop of Durham, known as the "Durham letter," he denounced the recent measures of the Pope as "a pretension of supremacy over the realm of England, and a claim to sole and undivided sway, which is inconsistent with the Queen's supremacy, with the rights of our bishops and clergy, and with the spiritual independence of the nation as asserted even in Roman Catholic times." Public meetings denouncing the Papal aggression were held throughout the country and petitions were adopted calling upon the Government and Legislature to interfere. On the 5th of November, effigies of the Pope and Cardinal Wiseman were carried through the streets and burnt at night; the "bray of Exeter Hall," as Lord Macaulay called it, was never more loudly heard; and for a time religious excitement never ran so high. The Queen, in her own gracious and kindly words, has left on record her own opinions and feelings on the subject. Writing to the Duchess of Gloucester, she said, "I could never have consented to anything which breathed a spirit of intolerance. Sincerely Protestant as I have always been and always shall be, and indignant as I am at those who call themselves Protestants, while they are, in fact, quite the contrary, I much regret the unchristian and intolerant spirit exhibited by many people at the public meetings. I cannot bear to hear the violent abuse of the Catholic religion, which is so painful and so cruel towards the many good and innocent Roman Catholics. However, we must hope and trust this excitement will soon cease, and that the wholesome effect of it upon our own Church will be lasting."

Some idea of the ferment may be gathered from the fact that between the 14th and 30th of November, no fewer than seventy-eight works on the Papal aggression were issued from the Press. On the 7th of February, 1851, the Premier introduced a Bill "to prevent the assumption by Roman Catholics of certain ecclesiastical titles taken from any place within the United Kingdom." By a vote of 395 to 63 the House permitted the Bill to be brought in. Before this Bill—which Mr. Roebuck described as "one of the meanest, pettiest, and most futile measures that ever disgraced even bigotry itself"—became law, the old enthusiasm had passed away, and when it became law "no one seemed one penny the worse or better," and Englishmen freely used, as a matter of course, the territorial titles which had put the nation into so great a flutter only a few months before. Twenty years afterwards the Act was repealed, although the illegality of the titles was again explicitly affirmed.

The year 1848 was marked by revolutions in almost every capital in Europe; thrones were upset, dynasties collapsed, the whole continent was thrown into confusion and alarm; and every State was convulsed by violent popular conflicts with the authorities. In France, where the great agitation commenced, Louis Philippe, after reigning successfully as a constitutional monarch for eighteen years, came into collision with the people on the question of Parliamentary reform. On the 24th of February

the Third French Revolution broke out in Paris, and the King abdicated, fled in terror from his capital, and came a fugitive to England. A Republic was established, of which Louis Napoleon, the nephew of Napoleon I., was afterwards elected President. On his taking his seat in the National Assembly he said: "After thirty-three years of proscription and exile, I at last recover my country and all my rights as a citizen. The Republic has given me this happiness; let the Republic receive my oath of gratitude; and may my generous countrymen who have brought me into this Assembly be certain that I shall endeavour to justify their votes by labouring with you for the maintenance of tranquillity—that first necessity of the country—and for the development of democratic institutions, which the people have the right to demand. . . . My conduct will prove, with respect to the persons who have endeavoured to blacken my character in order again to proscribe me, that no one here is more resolved than I am to devote himself to the defence and freedom of the Republic."

THE FLIGHT OF LOUIS PHILIPPE.

The revolutionary spirit kindled in France spread like wildfire over all the Continent. There was insurrection throughout Italy; Charles Albert, King of Sardinia, placed himself at the head of the Italian independents—whose aim it was to liberate Italy from the Austrian yoke—was defeated, and was compelled to abdicate. The Pope (Pius IX.) whose capital was in the hands of the Republicans was driven from Rome and sought refuge in Naples; Rome was taken by a French force sent out avowedly to "restore order" and eventually the Pope came back to his capital. Sicily revolted from the King of Naples; Hungary revolted against Austria;—Vienna was for a time in the hands of insurgents, until Russia came to its aid; in Germany, the King of Prussia was driven from his capital, but returned with a large army and frightened the insurgents into dispersing without loss of life.

In England and Belgium alone there was comparative quiet, although much anxiety in our own country was felt. The Chartist Movement, as we have seen * culminated

* See page 309.

and collapsed; the rebellion in Ireland, headed by Smith O'Brien, was confined to a "scrimmage in a cabbage garden," and ended in the conviction of the ring-leaders and their sentence to transportation.

And thus England weathered the storm that overthrew and shattered so many foreign States.

After the storm there came a calm, and with the calm came a hopeful and joyous spirit in this country that found its best expression in the determination to gather together all the nations of the world in friendly competition in the arts of peace, at a Great International Exhibition, to be held in London in 1851 under the immediate auspices of the Prince Consort. In a speech at the Mansion House the Prince said :—

"Nobody who has paid any attention to the peculiar features of our present era, will doubt for a moment that we are living at a period of most wonderful transition, which tends rapidly to accomplish that great end, to which, indeed, all history points—the realization of the unity of mankind! Not a unity which breaks down the limits, and levels the peculiar characteristics of the different nations of the earth, but rather a unity the result and product of those very national varieties and antagonistic qualities.

"The distances which separated the different nations and parts of the globe are rapidly vanishing before the achievements of modern invention, and we can traverse them with incredible ease; the languages of all nations are known, and their acquirement placed within the reach of everybody; thought is communicated with the rapidity, and even by the power, of lightning. On the other hand the great principle of division of labour, which may be called the moving power of civilization, is being extended to all branches of science, industry, and art. . . . . .

"Gentlemen, the Exhibition of 1851 is to give us a true test and a living picture of the point of development at which the whole of mankind has arrived in this great task, and a new starting point from which all nations will be able to direct their future exertions."

CHAPTER XXXII

PLAYS, PLAYERS, AND PLAY-HOUSES.

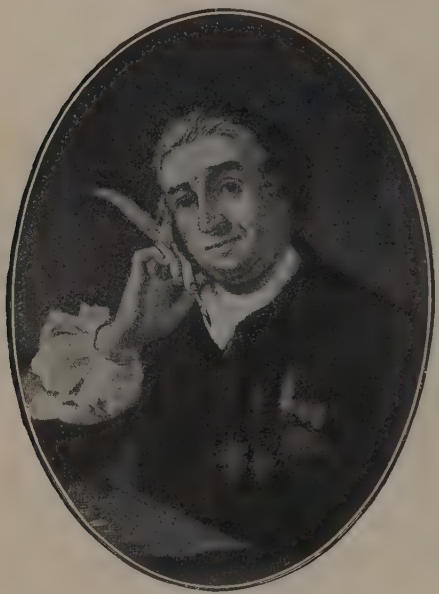
THE statute of Queen Anne which was passed "for the more effectual punishing of rogues, vagabonds, sturdy beggars, and vagrants, and for sending them whither they ought to be sent," was, by a later statute, made applicable to persons who should act plays for reward without license from the Lord Chamberlain. Such persons were liable, as rogues and vagabonds, to be publicly whipped or sent to the House of Correction, and they might also incur further penalties, including frequent whipping, as "incorrigible rogues," or might be sent to be employed in the King's service either by sea or land. The effect of these statutes was, that no person could perform at all without patent or license, nor with it, unless within the prescribed limits, which were the city and liberties of Westminster and the actual residence of the Sovereign. It subsequently happened that many great towns were desirous of having theatrical entertainments, and Acts of Parliament were passed enabling the Crown to authorise them. Afterwards a general Act empowered magistrates to grant licenses in places beyond the limits of the authority of the Lord Chamberlain. This was the state of the law during the period extending from 1788 to 1843, and is almost identical with that to which we now look back as the most flourishing period of the history of the English stage. By the Act of 1843 which now regulates theatres, the performance of unlicensed plays incurs a penalty of £50 nightly, but the performers in them are no longer liable to be treated as rogues and vagabonds. This Act authorises the Lord Chamberlain, "whenever he shall be of opinion that it is fitting for the preservation of good manners, decorum, or of the public peace so to do," to forbid the acting of any play.

So much for the law. Now for a rapid glance at some of the plays, players, and play-houses of the century, beginning with the two great "patent houses," Drury Lane and Covent Garden. When the century opened the tastes of the people were much more favourable to outdoor than indoor entertainments. Bear and bull-baiting, cock fighting, pugilism, and similar barbarous and brutal pastimes were more to their minds than the theatre, and it was a rare thing for the "people" to visit it. It was not until "spectacle" began to take the place of the legitimate drama that they patronized the stage. The theatre, therefore, was at first the resort of the well-to-do and the well educated, and it was not for many years that its audiences became in any degree like they are now.

The theatre itself has undergone many changes during the century. Wax candles at the back of the stage gave all the light the performers could have, the use of gas being introduced for the first time, at the Lyceum, in 1817; there were only eight theatres in all London; the mounting of plays was meagre and shabby even in good houses; the performers of minor characters were, as a rule, and especially at the smaller houses, "poor sticks" and of very inferior education. Shakespeare, until 1843, was confined to the patent houses.

In 1747 David Garrick, the father of the modern English stage, purchased Drury Lane in conjunction with Mr. Lacy, and in 1773, on the death of Lacy, became sole manager. In 1776 he sold his moiety of the theatre for £37,000, and retired from the

stage, his last performance being in the character of *Don Felix* in *The Wonder*. Three years later (Jan. 20th, 1779) he died, and was buried with great pomp in Westminster Abbey. Garrick, by personal example, and by skill and energy as manager of Drury Lane Theatre, raised the dramatic art and the ambition and status of its professors to a level previously unknown. He had himself, immense as was his popularity from the first, suffered from the shifty and precarious life which was inevitable where the metropolitan theatres were in the hands of men who cared nothing for art and had no principle or purpose in management but that of making money on any terms. For this state of things there was no cure but the practical one of a theatre conducted on a definite plan, and in which the best actors could be sure of a permanent home. "It is for the interests of the best actors to be together," wrote Garrick to Mrs. Pritchard's husband in 1747, when he entered upon his lesseeship of Drury Lane; and it was from no fault of his if they were not kept together down to the close of his lesseeship in 1776. He omitted no opportunity of securing for his theatre whatever, either in plays or actors, could best enable him to keep up the relish of the public for vigorous intellectual drama. The better the play, the more certain was it of being worthily presented, for with such performers as Mrs. Cibber, Mrs. Pritchard, Mrs. Yates, Mrs. Barry, Mrs. Clive, Miss Pope, Miss Younge, Mrs. Abington, Barry Mossop, Sheridan, Woodward, King, Smith, Shuter and Weston—not to mention a host of others of inferior ability—character, passion, pathos, poetry, humour or wit, were more likely to gain than suffer in the rendering. Held together as these admirable artists were by a man like Garrick, no less conspicuous for practical sense and a fine critical faculty than for genius as an actor, all that was best in them was brought out as it could never otherwise have been. In his own person he set before them the example of unwearied study in preparation and scrupulous care in performance; and the same discipline which he imposed upon himself he enforced upon his company, by careful rehearsals and tireless efforts to infuse into them the suggestions of his own intelligence and experience.

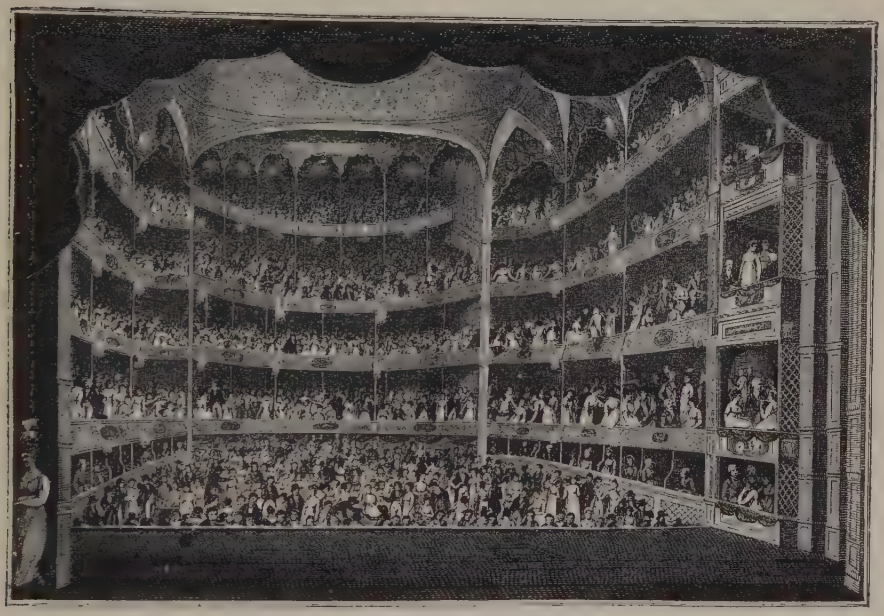


DAVID GARRICK.

Garrick's system struck root. "It begot a standard of excellence, which re-acted upon the public taste and diffused its influence even to remote provincial stages. Nor were his personal character and intimate relations with the best society without a salutary influence upon the status of actors generally. The personal friend of Chatham, Camden, and the Archbishop of Canterbury, might still by statute be a vagabond, but he was not therefore the less a gentleman. He had beaten down by the excellence of his private life, no less than by his genius, the narrow prejudice which had dealt with actors as people beyond the pale of good society; and what he began was made secure by many followers of the art, in whom were found moral worth, well regulated lives, and 'all good grace to grace a gentleman.'"*

*Quarterly Review, No. 263 (1872).

In the year that Garrick retired from the stage, Drury Lane came under the management of Richard Brinsley Sheridan, who, in 1777, brought out his most famous comedy, *The School for Scandal*—a model of its kind, which still holds its place on the stage—followed in 1779 by *The Critic*, another brilliant success. From 1788 to 1802, John Philip Kemble, one of the most eminent tragedians of the British stage—brother of the celebrated Mrs. Siddons—took the management of Drury Lane. The Kemble family kept alive the splendours of the actor's art, and continued, in the person of John Kemble, during his management of the two patent theatres, the system of discipline and the standard of prevailing excellence which Garrick had established.



OLD DRURY LANE THEATRE.

Drury Lane, as built by Sir Christopher Wren, fell into decay and was pulled down, and in 1794 the new theatre was opened. It was capable of accommodating 3,611 people, or nearly 600 more than the present building holds. On the opening of the dramatic season *Macbeth* was performed, with Kemble and Mrs. Siddons in the leading parts, and Charles Kemble—it was his first appearance in London—as *Malcolm*; and throughout his management Kemble made it a principle to gather together the very best company of actors obtainable.

On the 24th of February, 1809, Drury Lane was burnt down a second time, and re-opened in October, 1812.

One of the red letter days in the history of the new theatre was the 26th of January, 1814, when a strolling player, threadbare and down at heel, was called upon, to his own utter amazement, to play *Shylock* in the *Merchant of Venice*. The theatre was only half full, and the audience was at first cold and indifferent, but as the play proceeded it dawned upon them that no ordinary man was before them, and interest grew into excitement, and excitement into a wild enthusiasm when the curtain fell upon the fourth act, and Edmund Kean passed from a mere strolling player to the foremost place in the dramatic world.

His fame spread rapidly, and when he confirmed his success by his impersonation of *Richard III.*, all London rang with his praises. "I have just returned from seeing Kean in *Richard*," wrote Lord Byron in his diary; "By Jove! he is a soul! Life, nature, truth, without exaggeration or diminution." Coleridge said "It was reading Shakespeare by flashes of lightning." It was a strange transition. For three months the poor strolling player had been idle, waiting for an opportunity, without a penny in his pocket, or any prospect of paying for the rent of his lodgings, and on the day of his first memorable performance at Drury Lane, "help from the pawnbroker," says his biographer, "was needed to obtain for him substantial food before his appearance at the theatre."

EDMUND KEAN.
At the time of his first appearance at Drury Lane.
"The Little Man with the Great Soul."
From a contemporary print.

Next day Mr. Whitbread, the manager, called to thank the actor for his great services, and placed a £50 draft in the hands of his son, "little Charles Kean," a baby of three years old. "Presents flowed in upon him from all sides; society fawned upon him, flattered him, courted him, and made him the idol of the hour. During six years Kean was the Atlas that supported the burden of the huge theatre; rivals rose, but all paled before the splendour of his overwhelming genius." No actor since Garrick had shown such marvellous talent; never had that generation seen such intensity of passion, such *abandon*, such soul-stirring portraiture. In every fresh play—by dint of most laborious study—his success was not only maintained, but enhanced, and all the theatre-going world witnessed with enthusiasm his *Othello*, *Hamlet*, *Macbeth*, *Lear*, *Iago*, and other characters. He played in the provinces, in Paris, and in the United States; he won an enormous fortune and spent it with reckless extravagance; he sported his carriage, sent young Charles to Eton, took his place in the highest society, and, as fresh fame and ever-increasing profit came to him, he continued his hold on public estimation until 1825. Then he appeared in the character of a co-respondent in a divorce suit, and his popularity began sensibly to decline. In the days of his poverty he had struggled manfully and heroically; wealth turned his head and became his bane. He gave way to dissolute habits, squandered his money insanely, yielded to the demon of drink, and fell lower and lower until, when he was little more than thirty-five, his physical powers showed unmistakeable signs of premature decay. "His mind was shattered, his memory was gone, he could learn no new parts, his means were exhausted, he was living precariously from day to day upon the earnings which his growing infirmities rendered more and more uncertain."

Two brief stories, as told by Mr. Dutton Cook, may be given here.

(1) "Edmund Kean volunteered to play for his son's benefit, and they met on the stage

for the first time in the Glasgow Theatre on the 1st October, 1828—the anniversary, as it chanced, of Charles Kean's first appearance in London. They appeared as *Brutus* and *Titus* in Howard Payne's tragedy of *Brutus*. In the last pathetic scene, when *Brutus*, overpowered by his emotions, falls upon the neck of *Titus* with an agonized cry of 'Embrace thy wretched father!' the audience, we are told, after sitting for some time suffused in tears, broke forth into loud and prolonged applause. 'We are doing the trick, Charley!' whispered Edmund Kean to his son."

(2) "Laporte, a shrewd impresario, bethought him of engaging Edmund Kean, and presenting father and son together upon the stage for the first time in London. Accordingly, *Othello* was announced for representation on the 25th of March, 1833, with Edmund Kean as *Othello*, Charles Kean as *Iago*, and Miss Ellen Tree as *Desdemona*. This was Edmund Kean's last appearance upon the stage. He was now the merest wreck of what he had been. He had been wretchedly weak and ill, and cold and shivering all day long. There had been no rehearsal. The play began. He was very feeble; he could scarcely walk across the stage. 'Charles is getting on,' he observed; 'he's acting very well; I suppose that's because he's acting with me.' Brandy was freely administered to him, but his strength was fast failing him. This was so plain to those upon the stage, that a servant was directed to air another dress, so that Mr. Warde, a respectable tragedian of the second rank, might be prepared to assume the character should Kean be unable to complete his performance. Before the third act commenced he said to his son, 'Mind, Charles, that you keep well before me in this act. I don't know that I shall be able to kneel; but if I do, be sure that you lift me up.' The play proceeded. He delivered the famous 'Farewell' with all his wonted pathos; but when he attempted the outburst, 'Villain, be sure, &c.,' he staggered and sank into his son's arms. His acting was over for ever. 'I am dying, Charles; speak to them for me,' he whispered; and in a fainting state he was borne off the stage. He lingered some three weeks, dying at Richmond on the 15th May, 1833."*

CHARLES KEAN.

So passed away "the little man with the great soul," the actor who approached nearest to Garrick, the destroyer of the conventional school of the Kembles, the last of the great English tragedians of his generation.

There was great rivalry between the two patent houses, Drury Lane and Covent Garden, and playgoers espoused the cause of their favourite house with as much heat and zeal as they displayed in great political elections. When Booth, in 1817, performed first at one house and then at the other, the partizans of each were greatly aggrieved, and would neither listen to him nor to the managers, who were profuse in their apologies; but the malcontents occupied their time in hissing and hooting, nor would they cease their hostility until Booth published an

* "Hours with the Players." By Dutton Cook.

appeal to the public, urging forgiveness for his "grave misconduct." This Junius Brutus Booth was the father of Edwin Booth, an excellent actor, and of John Wilkes Booth, the assassin of President Lincoln.

Robert William Elliston, "one of the finest representatives of heroic comedy the stage has ever known" became actor-manager of Drury Lane in 1819. His naturalness on the stage was his principal charm, giving the impression that all he was doing was spontaneous and was done for the pure love of the thing. It was said of Wrench the actor, that he was the same natural easy creature on the stage that he was off. "My case exactly," retorted Elliston—with a charming forgetfulness that the converse of a proposition does not always lead to the same conclusion—"I am the same person *off* the stage that I am *on*." "The inference at first sight," says Charles Lamb, "seems identical, but examine it a little, and it confesses only, that the one performer was never, and the other always, *acting*. And in truth this was the charm of Elliston's private deportment. You had spirited performance always going on before your eyes, with nothing to pay. As where a monarch takes up his casual abode for the night, the poorest hovel which he honours by his sleeping in it becomes *ipso facto* for that time a palace; so wherever Elliston walked, sate, or stood still, there was the theatre." Charles Lamb has, in the Last Essays of Elia, immortalised Elliston in the wonderful apostrophe, "To the Shade of Elliston," and in "Ellistoniana." It was under Elliston's management that Miss Ellen Tree, the accomplished actress who subsequently became Mrs. Charles Kean, made her first appearance.

GRIMALDI AS JACK SHEPPARD.

At Drury Lane, on the 27th of June, 1828, Grimaldi, the famous clown, whose history was one of intense sadness, took his farewell of the stage. Thirteen years before, he had been stricken down by a serious illness, and from that time forth never knew a day of perfect health. "At length his sufferings became so acute that men were obliged to be kept waiting at the side scenes to catch him when he came staggering and exhausted off the stage; his sinews were gathered up into knots by the cramp that followed their every exertion; and during the waits his limbs had to be chafed to enable him to go on with the performance." At his farewell benefit the scene was very affecting. "He was to act the clown in one scene of *Harlequin Hoax*, and speak a farewell address. But what a difference from the old days, when he used to come bounding upon the stage full of life and vigour, amidst a roar of delight from the expectant audience! The roar of applause was more enthusiastic than ever; but instead of the sprightly Joey of old, a prematurely aged man, unable to stand, was carried before the footlights on a chair; yet the old humour sparkled as brilliantly as ever; his old jokes, his old songs, never provoked louder shouts of laughter than on the last occasion he was ever to utter them. 'It is four years,' he said in his farewell speech, 'since I jumped my last jump, filched my last oyster, and boiled my last sausage. To-night has seen me assume the motley for a short time; it clung to my skin as I took it off, and the old cap and bells

rang mournfully as I quitted them for ever.' When the last word was spoken, Harley led him, utterly overcome, off the stage amidst a tremendous sympathetic demonstration, and when he quitted the theatre a huge crowd followed his vehicle, cheering him the whole way home to Pentonville."*

For five and twenty years Alfred Bunn was director of Drury Lane Theatre, and was much regarded for his liberality and judgment. He was known as the "poet Bunn," more on account of the feebleness and inanity of his lines than for their excellence—the whole range of songs in the *Bohemian Girl*, *Maritana*, and other operas are the fruit of his pen. Every conceivable form of entertainment was given by him, from the legitimate drama down to tight-rope dancers and Van Amburg, the lion tamer, who gave two special performances at the command of the Queen. He introduced Jullien's promenade concerts, and, under his management, every actor of distinction, as well as every great European singer, appeared.

In 1841, Macready, after failing at Covent Garden, became manager of Drury Lane, and produced among many other plays the *Two Gentlemen of Verona*, Byron's *Marino Faliero*, and Handel's *Acis* and *Galatea*. Among the company were James Anderson, Phelps, Ryder, Keeley, Harley, Elton, Mrs. Nisbett, Mrs. Stirling, Mrs. Keeley, and Miss Priscilla Horton (afterwards Mrs. German Reed). Macready introduced many important reforms. "With a determined hand he swept away those shameful abuses which had hitherto disgraced the auditorium of our theatres, and introduced an order and decorum until then unknown." In 1842, during the revival of Dryden's *King Arthur*, there was a failure in finding a soloist for "Come if you dare," and Mr. Sims Reeves was selected to fill the vacancy, making such a hit that he was nightly encored. In 1843 Macready produced the opera entitled *Sappho*, with Clara Novello in the leading part. In that year "patent rights" were enjoyed by the two great theatres for the last time. The Licensing Act of 1843, introduced by Sir James Graham, abolished the patent privileges held by the two great houses, and placed all London theatres under the jurisdiction of the Lord Chamberlain.

WILLIAM CHARLES MACREADY.

Mr. E. T. Smith became manager of Drury Lane in 1852, and *Uncle Tom's Cabin* (the book was then in the height of its popularity) was his first production. In 1853-4 Gustavus Brooke drew crowded houses; then, Madame Gassier, Lucy Escott, Fanny Huddart, Hamilton Braham, Bettini, Barrani, and many others were heard in opera for half-a-crown in the second circle, or a shilling in the pit. Under his management every variety of entertainment was given, and he "alternated" Brooke and Miss Glyn with Rachel and a circus, and Charles Mathews with Chinese conjurors and a man representing a fly crawling upon the ceiling.

* "The London Stage," 1576-1888. By H. Barton Baker. Vol. 1, p. 107.

In the early autumn of 1862 Dion Boucicault opened Drury Lane with the *Colleen Bawn*, Madame Celeste and Mrs. Boucicault taking the principal female characters. In December of the same year Edmund Falconer became manager, and gave splendid

DRURY LANE ON BOXING NIGHT.

revivals of *King John*, *Henry IV.*, *Manfred*, and *Comus*, with Phelps, Mrs. Hermann Vezin, and Walter Montgomery among the leading performers.

In 1866 Chatterton succeeded, and produced Shakespeare, Byron, and the old comedies, with Phelps, Walter Montgomery, Barry Sullivan, John Ryder, Mrs. Hermann Vezin, and Miss Adelaide Neilson among the company. In 1868 he brought out the *Great City*, "the first of those panoramic dramas of modern life which have since attained to such extraordinary proportions on this very stage," in which Miss Madge Robertson (afterwards Mrs. Kendal) made her London début.

Mr. Augustus Harris became lessee in 1879, and under his direction sensational dramas with elaborate scenic effects and pantomimes with processions of costly magnificence seemed to reach their climax. In 1881 he entered into an engagement with the Saxe-Meinengen Company, from whom theatre managers learned a lesson in perfection of detail which has been of lasting importance, and has nowhere been followed with greater success than in the production of *Julius Cæsar* by Mr. Beerbohm Tree in 1900.

COVENT GARDEN. In the first year of the century George Frederick Cooke, a strolling player, appeared at Covent Garden as *Richard*, and produced a tremendous sensation. By many he was considered superior to Edmund Kean, whom he greatly resembled in character, being a drunken and dissipated fellow. On many occasions he failed to put in an appearance on the stage, or presented himself in a drunken state. Once he staggered on to the boards, and putting his hand upon his heart, hiccoughed, "My old complaint, ladies and gentlemen, my old complaint," which was received with roars of laughter. He played for the last time in London in 1810, and died two years afterwards in Boston, "being the first of the great English actors who starred in America."

In 1803 John Kemble,* having purchased a sixth part of the Covent Garden patent for £23,000, became stage manager and general director. In the following year the boy actor, Young Roscius, made his appearance, as we have already noticed,† and during the whole time he was there, produced an enthusiasm probably unsurpassed in stage annals.

Covent Garden was burnt to the ground on September 30th, 1808, twenty-three firemen perishing in the ruins. The second Covent Garden Theatre, built by Smirke, the celebrated architect, from the model of the temple of Minerva in the Acropolis at Athens, had the historic opening to which we have already referred in the "O.P." Riots.‡ §

JOHN PHILIP KEMBLE.

Here on June 29th, 1812, Mrs. Siddons took her leave of the stage as *Lady Macbeth*,

* John Kemble's Company included Mrs. Siddons, Cooke, and Munden.

† See page 132. ‡ See page 132.

§ "Between the years 1809 and 1821 tragedy was represented by such artists as Kemble, Cooke, Macready, Young, Charles Kemble, Conway, Terry, Abbott, Mrs. Siddons, Miss O'Neill, Mrs. Bunn, &c., &c.; comedy by Munden, Johnstone, Liston, Jones, C. Kemble, Farren, Faweett, Blanchard, Mathews, Emery, Farley, Yates; Mesdames Jordan, Davison, Brunton, Gibbs, C. Kemble, Foote, Davenport, &c. In opera by Braham, Incledon, Sinclair, Philips, Mesdames Catalani, Kitty Stephens, Maria Tree, Love, Fearon; in pantomime by Byrne, Farley, Grimaldi, Bologna, Ellar." During this period "spectacular melodrama was in the ascendant, splendid processions, real water, horses, elephants, and even dogs were for the first time introduced into the drama."

on October 6th, 1814, Miss O'Neill made her first appearance as *Juliet*, on September 16th, 1816, Macready made his first appearance to a London audience, and on June 29th, 1817, John Philip Kemble bade farewell to the stage in his greatest character, *Coriolanus*.

MRS. SIDDONS.

William Farren, or "old Farren," as he was familiarly called, made his first appearance on the London stage in 1818, at Covent Garden, in the character of *Sir Peter Teazle*, assisted by Young as *Joseph Surface*, Charles Kemble as *Charles Surface*, Terry as *Sir Oliver*, Blanchard as *Crab Tree*, Liston as *Sir Benjamin*, Miss Brunton as *Lady Teazle*, Miss Gibbs as *Mrs. Candour*, and Miss Foote as *Maria*—as goodly a company as ever appeared together, each name being distinguished in the annals of the drama.

Farren personated in turn all the most famous "old men" of standard comedy and farce, and sometimes undertook characters of an eccentric kind that stood somewhat removed from that category. He "pertained alike to the old stage and the new; he triumphed in the classical English comedies of the last century, the works of Sheridan, Congreve, Murphy, Farquhar, Vanbrugh, Goldsmith, Cibber, and Colman; and he achieved curious success in the plays of his own time, vying with the best French actors in his creation of character, his appreciation of detail, the minute finish of his performances, his taste in dress, and his skill in the art of making up. His stage portraits were executed with English force and breadth, and yet with French subtlety and artistic *finesse*."* In 1848 and 1851 respectively he became manager of the Strand and the Olympic theatres, and retired from the stage in 1855. He died in 1861 at the age of 75. His son, William Farren the younger, proved himself a worthy successor to his famous father.

In 1819 Maria Tree, the sister of Mrs. Charles Kean, made her first appearance, and Miss Love in 1823. In 1829, when the financial affairs of Charles Kemble were in a hopeless condition, his daughter Fanny, then in her seventeenth year, stepped into the breach and redeemed the fortunes of the house. On the 30th of May, 1832, Charles Young, the most successful of the Kemble school of actors, took his farewell of the stage.

Miss Helen Faucit, at the age of thirteen, made her first appearance on the stage at Richmond. Three years later (1833), she made her début at Covent Garden as *Julia* in the *Hunchback*, followed by a wide range of characters, including *Pauline* in the *Lady of Lyons*, *Juliet*, *Lady Macbeth*, *Rosalind* and *Antigone*.

Macready became manager of Covent Garden Theatre in September, 1837, with a revival of the *Winter's Tale*, followed by *Hamlet*, *Othello*, *Werner*, *Macbeth*, etc. He surrounded himself with a company of the finest actors to be obtained. In *Coriolanus*, Vandenhoff appeared in the title rôle; in the *Tempest*, Macready appeared as *Prospero*,

* "Hours with the Players." By Dutton Cook, p. 247.

George Bennett as *Caliban*, Helen Faucit as *Miranda*, Phelps as *Antonio*, Anderson as *Ferdinand*. Notwithstanding this, Macready retired from the management in 1839, a heavy loser by the undertaking.

Madame Vestris succeeded Macready in September, 1839, and opened with *Love's Labour Lost*, and her company included Harley, the Keeleys, Mrs. Nisbett, Charles Mathews, Anderson, etc. Her management ended in 1841, the most successful of the pieces presented being Boucicault's *London Assurance*.

On March 4th, 1856, a *bal masque* was given by Professor Anderson, known as the "Wizard of the North," and the old home of the Kembles was again destroyed by fire.

The new Covent Garden Theatre became almost exclusively devoted to Opera.

Of the state of the ordinary theatre in the first quarter of the century Sir Walter Scott said, when asked to write for the stage, "I do not think the character of the audience in London is such that one could have the least pleasure in pleasing them. One half come to prosecute their debaucheries so openly that it would degrade a Bagnio; another set to snooze off their beefsteaks and port-wine; a third are critics of the fourth column of the newspapers; fashion, wit, or literature there is not, and on the whole I would far rather write verses for my honest friend Punch and his audience. The only thing that could tempt me to be so silly would be to assist a friend in such a degrading task who was to have the whole profit and shame of it."

OPERA. The first twenty years of the century were more remarkable for the introduction of great operatic works than for great singers. Mozart's *Nozze di Figaro* was brought to London by Madame Catalani, with herself as the original *Susanne;* this was followed in 1811 by *Il Flauto Magico*, and, in 1817, by *Don Giovanni*. In 1818 the *Barbière*, the first opera of Rossini ever heard in England, was introduced by Signor Garcia, and took the town by storm, and for the next ten years the works of Rossini and Mozart were in constant demand.

In 1824 Madame Pasta, who had made her début in 1817, reappeared and created a profound sensation, not only as a singer of unexampled excellence, but also as a consummate actress—"the Siddons of opera." In 1827 Sontag appeared, followed soon afterwards by Malibran. Among other great singers Signor Lablache, the gifted bass singer, performed in 1830; Rubini, the tenor, in 1831; Tamburini in 1832, Grisi in 1834, Persiani in 1838, and Mario in 1839.

Jenny Lind, "the Swedish Nightingale," made her début at Her Majesty's Theatre under the management of Mr. Lumley in 1845, in Meyerbeer's opera, *Roberto il Diavolo*, its first performance in Italian in this country. Mr. Chorley in his *Reminiscences* says: "She

JENNY LIND.

appeared as *Alice* in *Robert*, an appearance not to be risked by any singer the least nervous. The girl, dragged hastily down the stage in the midst of a crowd, has at once, and when out of breath, to begin on an accented note without time to think or look around her. I have never seen anyone so composed as Mdlle. Lind on that night. Though the thunder of welcome was loud and long enough to stop the orchestra and to bewilder a veteran, and though it was acknowledged with due modesty, her hands did not tremble—one even arranged a ring on the finger of the other—and her voice spoke out as firmly as though neither fear nor failure were possible. The scenes of *Alice* were waited for, listened to in breathless silence, and received with applause which was neither encouragement, nor appreciation, nor enthusiasm, so much as idolatry." In 1849 the wonderful songstress, to the regret of her ten thousand admirers, appeared for the last time behind the footlights.

Sims Reeves sang at the Italian Opera for the first time in 1848 in *Linda di Chamouni*, and in the following year, with Miss Catherine Hayes, in *Lucia di Lammermoor*. For thirty years he had no rival, and remained the greatest English tenor of the century. He died October 25th, 1900, at the age of eighty-two.

The great sensation of 1856 was the appearance of Piccolomini, one of the most gifted artistes alike as vocalist and actress, and Giuglini who has been described "as the last of the great tenors." At the début of Teresa Titiens in 1858 there was a demonstration and excitement almost unparalleled, only to be repeated when, in 1867, Christine Nillson made her first appearance. Her "ideal rendering of Gounod's *Marguerite* was the last triumph of the old Covent Garden," which was burnt to the ground on the 6th of December in that year. Time would fail to tell of those who have made Covent Garden famous, but the names of Adelina Patti, Pauline Lucca, Madame Albani, Madame Trebelli, Mr. Santley, M. Faure, Signor Tamberlik, Signor Foli, the Brothers De Reske, and many more will occur to every reader.

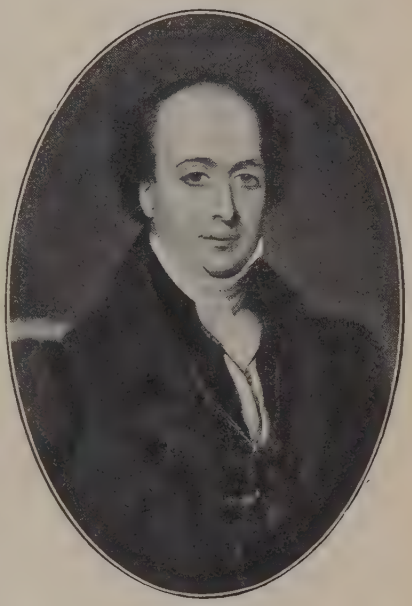
THE BALLET. Opera ballet was introduced to this country in 1734 by Mdlle. Sallé, and soon became the rage. But it was not until 1821 that Mr. Ebers, the lessee of the Opera House, made it a seemingly permanent institution, and carried it to its highest stage of perfection. He brought over from Paris Mdlle. Noblet and M. Albert, the favourites of the Parisian stage, and enormous sums were expended in salaries to these and other dancers, so that

TAGLIONI.

CARLOTTA GRISI.

the cost of production of a ballet frequently exceeded that of an elaborate opera. Strange to say in the early part of the century male dancers were as much the fashion as female dancers, and commanded as high salaries.

The ballet reached its highest development and popularity in the days of Taglioni, Fanny Elssler, Cerito, Adèle Dumilâtre, Carlotta Grisi, and Lucille Grahn. The famous Pas de Quatre—the greatest event in the history of the ballet—was danced by Taglioni, Carlotta Grisi, Cerito, and Grahn, a combination never before equalled, and never since surpassed. The rage for the ballet gradually subsided until it sank into a mere divertissement, and finally disappeared from association with opera to become a separate entertainment.



BENJAMIN WEBSTER.

THE HAYMARKET THEATRE. With the exception of Drury Lane and Her Majesty's, the Haymarket is the oldest dramatic house in England. At the opening of the century (1801) the company included John Emery, Charles Kemble, Fawcett, Jack Bannister, Suett (the Dicky Suett so admirably sketched by Charles Lamb), Farley, Barrimore, "Irish" Johnstone, Mrs. Mountain, Mrs. Davenport, Mrs. Gibbs, etc. Elliston made his first appearance here in 1796, Charles Mathews the elder in 1802, Liston in 1805, and Charles Young in 1807. The Haymarket Theatre familiar to us, was opened on July 4th, 1821, with the *Rivals;* in 1825 *Paul Pry* was produced, and ran for 114 nights—a rare thing in those days—to crowded houses. The cast was inimitable; Liston, William Farren, Mrs. Waylett, Mrs. Glover, and Madame Vestris. John Liston was the greatest comic actor that up to that time had ever appeared upon the stage. "His genius was farcically extravagant but irresistibly comical; yet he was grave, and ever stately in appearance, though abnormally ugly." In 1837 Benjamin Webster became lessee of the Haymarket, and during his first season Phelps made his first appearance. Here, too, Madame Celeste made her mark as an actress in the romantic drama *The Wept of the Wishton Wish*, and here, on February 26th, 1851, Macready took his farewell of the stage as *Macbeth*. Webster took the Adelphi, and the Haymarket passed into the hands of John Baldwin Buckstone, who revived in 1853 several old comedies and produced many new melodramas and domestic dramas. Some

AMY SEDGWICK.

of the greatest successes at the Haymarket were the appearance of Miss Amy Sedgwick in 1857 in Tom Taylor's *Unequal Match;* Edwin Booth's first appearance in England as *Sir Giles Overreach* in 1861, and Edward Southern as *Lord Dundreary* in November of that same year. In 1870 Mr. Gilbert's *Palace of Truth* followed by *Pygmalion and Galatea* and the *Wicked World* were among the successes of the theatre, the management of which then passed into the hands of Mr. J. S. Clarke, whose grotesque performances of *Major Wellington de Boots* drew crowded houses. In 1880 the Haymarket came under the management of the Bancrofts who distinguished themselves by abolishing the pit and substituting the family circle. They retired in 1885, not only from the management but also from the stage, and in 1887 the Haymarket passed into the safe hands of Mr. Beerbohm Tree.

THE LYCEUM, which from 1765 had been used for various entertainments, became in 1809 a regular theatre, and in the following year its name was changed to "The English Opera House." In 1815 the old theatre was pulled down and on the re-opening day (June 15th, 1816) the company included the celebrated Miss Kelly (the heroine of Charles Lamb's "Barbara S——"), in conjunction with Miss Poole, Mrs. Orger, Wallack, Harley, and other well known artistes. Two years later Mathews the elder, gave his famous entertainment entitled *Mathews At Home*, which was exceedingly popular and has been imitated ever since. In 1828, owing to an accident at Covent Garden which necessitated the closing of that theatre, Edmund Kean played most of his finest parts, and here too, in 1830 a fire broke out and swept away the theatre and the whole of one side of Exeter Street. The Lyceum was rebuilt and opened in 1834, with the *Mountain Sylph*, Miss Romer, Henry Phillips, and Stretton taking the leading parts.

As the years passed the theatre shared the common fate and underwent many vicissitudes; promenade concerts were for the first time in this country introduced here, a wild beast show, and lion-tamers pleased the people in 1842, and Balfe tried the impossible task of making English Opera successful. Under the Keeley management, when the works of Charles Dickens were in the height of their popularity, a splendid company was got together, and between 1844 and 1847 *Martin Chuzzlewit*, *The Chimes*, *The Caudle Lectures*, etc., were given in dramatic form.

The palmy days of the Lyceum were however under the management of the accomplished Madame Vestris and her husband, Mr. Charles Mathews with a company including Mrs. Fitzwilliam, Mrs. Leigh Murray, Mrs. Stirling, Leigh Murray, Meadows, Selby, Harley, and Buckstone. Everybody went to see Planché's brilliant extravaganzas, such as *The Island of Jewels*, *Prince Charming*, and *The King of the Peacocks*, William Beverley's new devices in scenic art, Charles Mathews' *Used up*, *Box and Cox*, *Patter versus Clatter*, and so the Lyceum became the most popular of all the London theatres. It then (1856) passed into the hands of Charles Dillon who opened with *Belphegor*, in which Miss Marie Wilton (afterwards Mrs. Bancroft) made her first appearance in London as *Henri*, at a salary of £3 a week.

One of the most notable events in the history of the theatre was the management of Mr. Charles Fechter, who introduced a new order of things by the production of elaborate spectacles and the necessary constructions and appliances for wonderful mechanical effects, such as had never been seen before. Fechter's acting in *Hamlet* gave rise to much discussion. He was unconventional, tore to fragments the stage traditions of the Kemble school, did away with the traditional black garb of the

melancholy Dane, substituted a brownish coloured cloth and a flaxen ring, and inaugurated a freedom in the rendering of this and other well-known plays in which he has been followed by many notable actors.

In 1871 Miss Isabel Bateman appeared under the management of her father, Mr. H. L. Bateman, and in 1872 Mr. Henry Irving made his mark in *The Bells*. Year after year new plays and gorgeous revivals of old ones took the town by storm—*Charles I.*, *Eugene Aram*, *Richelieu*, *Macbeth*, *Richard III.*,—in many of which he had the valuable assistance of Miss Bateman. In 1878, consequent upon the death of Mr. Bateman, Mr. Irving became sole lessee, with Miss Ellen Terry as leading lady. From that day forward the history of the Lyceum has been one of unprecedented success, and to Sir Henry Irving may be ascribed the revolution that has taken place in the *morale* of the theatre; while the consummate acting of Miss Ellen Terry has inaugurated a new school, never before surpassed. For magnificence of scenery, for stage realism, for consistency in every detail, for beauty and accuracy of costume, each play mounted on the boards of the Lyceum has been as correct as it has been artistic.

The Olympic had in its early days a popularity which has long since ceased. At the beginning of the century it was a circus under the management of Philip Astley. Then it came under the management of the eccentric Robert William Elliston. In 1830 Madame Vestris took possession, and here Planché's burlesques and extravaganzas were first produced, and Charles Mathews the younger made his first and brilliantly successful appearance on the public stage; here, too, Liston, Keeley, James Vining, Miss Goward (afterwards Mrs. Keeley), Mrs. Stirling, Walter Lacy, Leigh Murray, Gustavus Brooke, and the gentlemanly William Farren played to crowded houses.

In 1839 Madame Vestris and Charles Mathews (the year after their marriage) left the Olympic, and for many years the theatre suffered great vicissitudes. Its revival took place in 1853, when Frederick Robson, once an actor at the Grecian Saloon in the City Road, appeared as *Shylock* in a burlesque upon *The Merchant of Venice*. Then followed a series of farces and burlesques with songs such as *Villikins and his Dinah*, and *The Country Fair*, and the Olympic became the most fashionable resort in London. There never before nor since was seen such an actor as Robson, and never was a better description given of him than the following:—"Poor Robson! his career was as brief as it was brilliant, and its brilliance was dulled long before the end. Who that saw him when in the full possession of his powers can ever forget that strange-looking little man, with the small body and the big head, who played upon his audience as though they had been the keys of a piano, now convulsing them with laughter as he perpetrated some outrageous drollery, now hushing them into awe-struck silence with an electrical burst of passion or pathos, or holding them midway between terror and laughter as he performed some weirdly grotesque dance? The impression he made at such moments was that of a man overwrought by excitement to the verge of madness; the wild, gleaming eyes, the marvellous twitchings of the marvellously plastic features, the utter *abandon* to the feeling of the moment, whether it was tragic or grotesque, the instantaneous transition from the tragedian to the clown, which was no stage trick but an inspiration, an irrepressible impulse, were all so creepy, so uncanny as to suggest incipient insanity. He was morbidly timid and nervous, he could never realise the great position to which he had attained, and was ever haunted by a fear that his fall would be as sudden as had been his rise; success had a delirious effect upon him, and to deaden the stage fright, which he could never overcome, he resorted to stimulants—with the usual result.

"Robson had been famous scarcely seven years when his powers began to fail, and his terror of facing the audience became so great that while waiting for his cue he would gnaw his arms until they bled, and cry out piteously, 'I dare not go on, I dare not!' until the prompter had at times absolutely to thrust him before the footlights."* He died on February 12th, 1864.

The management of the Olympic underwent many changes. In 1864 it was in the hands of Mr. Horace Wigan with Miss Kate Terry and Mr. Henry Neville as leading players; in 1869 of Mr. Liston, who introduced dramatic versions of novels as *Little Em'ly*, *The Woman in White;* of Miss Ada Cavendish (1872) who appeared in the *New Magdalen;* of Mr. Henry Neville in 1873 with *Clancarty*, and the *Two Orphans*. In 1879 Mr. Neville retired, and since that time the fortune of the house in Wych Street has greatly fluctuated.

THE ADELPHI. In 1806 a small theatre named the Sans Pareil was opened in the Strand for light entertainments. In 1819 the name was changed to the Adelphi, and in 1821 Mr. Keeley made the theatre popular, assisted mainly by Mrs. Waylett, who made her first appearance here. Keeley's first appearance was in a play entitled *Tom and Jerry; or, Life in London*, a vulgar piece of business, written by Pierce Egan, and founded upon the well-known coloured plates of George Cruikshank. Of Keeley's performance Sergeant Ballantine says in his "Experiences" "A little unknown man who had been given some three lines to say contrived in doing so to create roars of laughter. His part was written up, and from that time to his death he was recognised as one of the most comic actors that ever delighted an audience. This was Robert Keeley." It was not until 1830 that the plays known as "Adelphi Dramas" were introduced. The bright particular star of the Adelphi was Madame Celeste, who made her first appearance here in 1837. Some of her finest personations will never be forgotten by those who are old enough to remember them, such as *Cynthia* in the *Flowers of the Forest* and *Miami* in the *Green Bushes*. The Adelphi in its best days always had a great array of talent on the stage. There was Edward Wright, one of the funniest of actors, who made his audience roar with laughter even before he opened his mouth, and Paul Bedford, whose "I believe you, my boy," was the catchword of the day; Benjamin Webster, whose *Triplet* was inimitable, and Mrs. Keeley as *Jack Sheppard*, *Smike*, *Little Nell*, though widely dissimilar, were equally well acted. The Adelphi was pulled down in 1858, and on its reconstruction only two of the old members remained, Mrs. Mellon and Paul Bedford. The *Colleen Bawn* was the first great sensational hit, followed by the *Octoroon*, *The Dead Heart*, and *Leah* with Miss Bateman in the title rôle. In 1872, Benjamin Webster retired from the management and Chatterton took his place, followed in 1870 by Messrs. Gatti, who have had a series of successes ever since. For some years the hero of every sensational drama was Mr. William Terriss, who was cruelly murdered as he was entering the theatre on the 16th of December, 1897.

THE PRINCE OF WALES THEATRE in Tottenham Street, Tottenham Court Road, was originally a concert room, then a circus, and in 1814 was converted into the "Regency Theatre of Varieties." In 1826 it was rechristened the "West London Theatre," and was used for the production of French plays. The theatre was rechristened

* "The London Stage," by Barton Baker, Vol. II, p. 30.

in 1831 in the name of the "Queen's," and came under the management of Mrs. Nisbett. Here Madame Celeste, then only fifteen years of age, made her first appearance in London in a French pantomime. For many years the theatre failed to attract, or to take a standard position, although every expedient was tried. The neighbourhood was against it, and it sank lower and lower until it came to be regarded as one of the lowest theatres in London. Then, under the most inauspicious circumstances, Miss Marie Wilton took possession, and by permission of the Prince of Wales named the theatre after him. With good companies, sparkling burlesques, and laughable farces, the theatre only just held its own until *Society*, the first of Robertson's delightful series of plays was brought out, followed by *Ours*, *Caste*, and *School*. Among the notable pieces performed under the management of Mr. and Mrs. Bancroft, was the drama *Diplomacy*, and the splendid revivals of *Money*, *The School for Scandal*, etc. The Bancroft management ended in 1879, and it has been well said that "of all that has been accomplished in the way of rendering the English stage elegant and refined, both before and behind the curtain, during the last twenty years, the Bancrofts have been the pioneers."

The Prince of Wales Theatre has long since ceased to exist as such and is now diverted to other uses.

Sadler's Wells, named after one Mr. Sadler who, in 1684, discovered a well supposed to be of great medicinal value, is one of the old historical theatres, whose history would take too long to record here. It is without doubt the oldest theatre in England, and probably in Europe. Its outer walls, erected in 1765—135 years ago—are still standing. It was a "Musick house" in the last years of the Commonwealth—a prototype of the present music hall. In the middle of the last century and towards its end it was the scene of the early efforts of Joey Grimaldi. When Mr. Siddons was the lessee, a boy known as Master Carey made his first appearance on any stage, and, later on, became the celebrated Edmund Kean. With the commencement of the century, a series of nautical plays were produced under the management of Charles Dibdin, the famous writer of nautical songs, when the New River supplied real water on which real vessels floated, and T. P. Cooke became the type of all heroic sailors. In 1817 Grimaldi, the famous clown, undertook the management, and here made his last appearance, save one, in public. Ducrow, the famous equestrian, turned the theatre into a circus. The great event in the history of Sadler's Wells was when, in 1844, Samuel Phelps and Mrs. Warner commenced that marvellous series of performances which linger still in the memory of all old playgoers. The series of Shakesperian revivals, notable for their wide range, were put upon the stage destitute of any splendour in scenery, but interpreted by a brilliant company including such actors as Henry Marston, George Bennett, Creswick, and, later, Edmund Phelps, the son of Samuel. For sixteen years Phelps held sway here, and during that time the old Sadler's Wells enjoyed a reputation equal, if not superior, to any of the West End houses; but its glory has long since passed away.

The Strand Theatre was opened for stage plays in 1832, and from that day to this has been the home of burlesque and farcical pieces. Here Mrs. Waylett, Mrs. Nisbett, and Miss Priscilla Horton made some of their early triumphs. From time to time other great actors made their mark, including the Keeleys and Mrs. Stirling. The management of the Strand Theatre was often changed, and we find William Farren, William

Copeland (the brother of Mrs. Fitzwilliam), Miss Rebecca Isaacs, Barry Sullivan, Payne, and Leicester Buckingham successively figuring in that capacity, until in 1858 it fell into the hands of the Swanboroughs. A number of the funniest burlesques ever put upon the stage, many of them written by H. J. Byron, brought a reign of prosperity to the little Strand. The company was always good, and included John Clarke, James Bland, Marie Wilton, etc. Mr. John S. Clarke, the famous *Major Wellington de Boots*, appeared here in 1868, and became one of the attractions of the town, and in 1879 there was initiated a new kind of musical play, or Opera bouffé, entitled *Madame Favart*, in which Miss Florence St. John made her first appearance in London assisted by Miss Violet Cameron, M. Marius, Mr. Ashley, and others whose names are still well-known.

The St. James Theatre was built in 1835 at the expense of John Braham, the famous tenor, but his venture proved a failure. Many expedients were tried to redeem the position; at one time French plays, at another sketches from Dickens alternated with light opera. Here Miss Rainforth, and John Parry the prince of entertainers, made their débuts, and here Mrs. Stirling, Mrs. Honey, and the inimitable Wright performed with all their vigour and charm. Here, too, Rachel Felix, the great tragédienne drew crowded houses and became the favourite alike of royalty, the aristocracy, and the people; but nothing brought permanent success until the year 1879 when Mr. and Mrs. Kendal, in partnership with Mr. Hare, took possession. Of Mrs. Kendal a writer says, "This lady is undoubtedly the best all-round actress upon the English stage, the best grounded in her art, and the best representative of the thorough school; born, as it were, upon the stage, and bred for her profession in good provincial schools and under the eyes of parents who were steeped in its best traditions, Mrs. Kendal is proficient from top to toe; she is equally at home in the brighest comedy—as witness her performances in the *Queen's Shilling* and the *Scrap of Paper*—and the deepest pathos, for which we may cite her acting in *Black-eyed Susan* and the *Squire*, while in that subtlety of dumb expression in which a glance, a gesture, or even a countenance of stony impassiveness is more suggestive than speech, she has no equal among English actresses of the day. But this does not explain the whole secret of her popularity. It is rather that she is the representative of all the proprieties of private life; the wife, the mother, the champion—with a very loud trumpet—of the respectabilities, that the mater and pater familias of the higher grades of the middle class especially, mark her out for their patronage."

The latest successes of the St. James Theatre have been obtained under the excellent management of Mr. George Alexander.

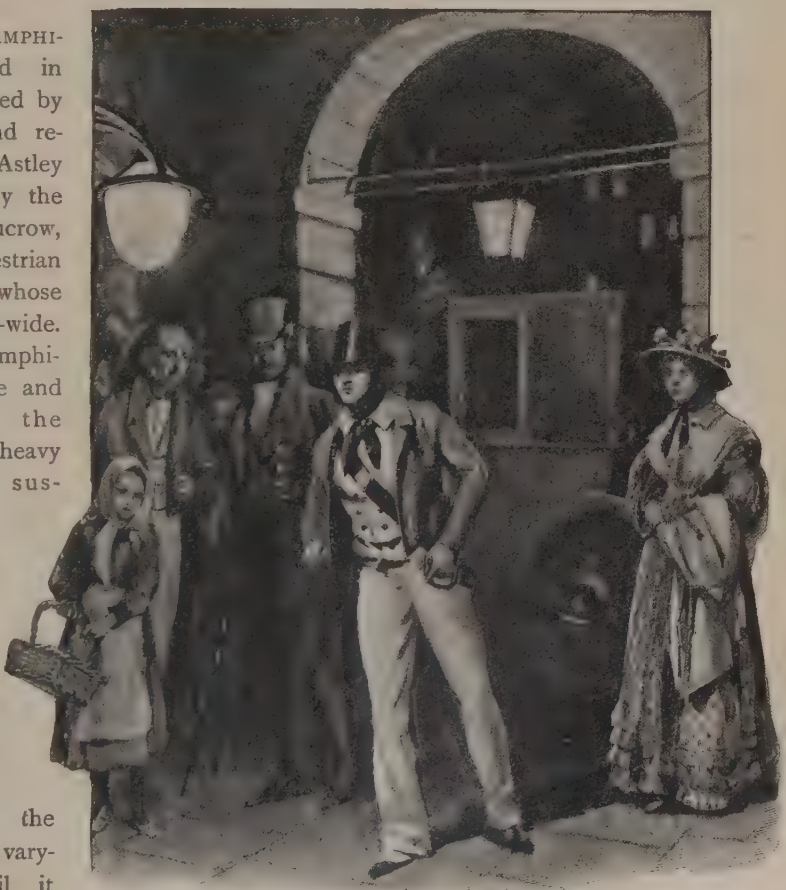
The Princess's Theatre, named after the Queen when she was Princess Victoria, was opened in October, 1840, for promenade concerts, succeeded in 1842 by opera in which Madame Gassier, and Madame Sala (the mother of "G. A. S." the journalist) appeared, and here in the following year Henry Russell sang some of those songs, such as "I'm afloat," which became familiar throughout the country. In 1845 two famous Americans, Edwin Forrest and Charlotte Cushman made their first appearance. Miss Cushman had played the leading parts in America with Macready, and Edwin Forrest was the great American rival of Macready, and the cause of the Macready riots in New York in 1849. After playing for some time at the Princess's, Miss Cushman accepted an engagement at the Haymarket, where in conjunction with her sister, Miss Susan Cushman, she appeared in Romeo and Juliet.

No event in the history of the Princess's Theatre is to be compared in importance to its management under Charles Kean in 1850. It was here that the *Corsican Brothers* first thrilled an English audience, and a series of Shakesperian revivals was placed upon the stage with a magnificence and attention to detail never before surpassed. Few who saw the *Winter's Tale* with its famous statue scene, or the death of *Catherine* in *Henry VIII.* with the vision of angels, or the glowing tableaux in *Richard III.* will ever forget the effects they produced. The management of Charles Kean only lasted until 1858, but it had an influence for good on the whole after history of the stage.

Under the management of Mr. George Vining plays such as *The Streets of London*, *Never too late to mend*, *After Dark*, supported by good companies and adorned with sensational effect were given. Here, under Chatterton, Phelps gave a performance of most of his famous parts, alternating some of them with Mr. Creswick, with whom he had been long associated.

From 1881 to 1886 Mr. Wilson Barrett held sway, and produced that stirring drama the *Silver King*, which seems destined never to grow old, and a classical play entitled *Claudian*, the main feature of which was the representation of an earthquake. Since that time the Princess's has passed through many vicissitudes which need no description here.

ASTLEY'S AMPHITHEATRE, erected in 1780, was destroyed by fire in 1803, and re-opened in 1804. Astley was succeeded by the famous Andrew Ducrow, the inimitable equestrian and pantomimist, whose fame was world-wide. In 1841 the Amphitheatre caught fire and was burnt to the ground, and the heavy losses Ducrow sustained led to his death only a few months later. Batty, Cooke, Dion Boucicault, Mr. E. T. Smith, and Mr. George Sanger successively undertook the management with varying success until it ceased to exist.



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T. P. COOKE ARRIVES AT COVENT GARDEN IN HIS COSTUME AS "WILLIAM" IN "BLACK-EYED SUSAN."

THE SURREY THEATRE was originally (1771) a circus, but was turned into a theatre by Elliston in 1809. Under the management of Tom Dibdin (1816) its name "The Royal Circus," was changed into that of the "Surrey." In 1827 T. P. Cooke, the famous nautical hero, appeared in Douglas Jerrold's *Black-eyed Susan*, and thereby hangs a tale.

"'All London,' wrote Hepworth Dixon in the *Athenæum*, at the time of Jerrold's death, 'went over the water, and Cooke became a personage in society, as Garrick had been in the days of Goodman's Fields. Covent Garden borrowed the play, and engaged the actor, for an after-piece. A hackney cab carried the triumphant William in his blue jacket and white trousers from the Obelisk to Bow Street, and Mayfair maidens wept over the stirring situations, and laughed over the searching dialogue, which had moved, an hour before, the laughter and tears of the Borough. On the three hundredth night of representation the walls of the theatre were illuminated, and vast multitudes filled the thoroughfare. When subsequently produced at Drury Lane, it kept off ruin for a time even from magnificent misfortune. Actors and managers for a time reaped a golden harvest. Testimonials were got up for Elliston and Cooke on the glory of its success, but Jerrold's share of the gain was slight—about £70 of the many thousands it realised for the management. With unapproachable meanness, Elliston abstained from presenting the youthful writer with the value of a toothpick. When the drama had run three hundred nights he said to Jerrold, with amusing coolness, 'My dear boy, why don't you get your friends to present you with a bit of plate?' For the four hundred nights *Black-eyed Susan* was played at different theatres during the first year, Jerrold received about the sum that Cooke was paid for six nights at Covent Garden."

Those were the palmiest days of the Surrey. It subsequently became associated with Creswick in the legitimate drama, with Miss Romer and Rebecca Isaacs in opera. In 1865 it was burnt down and rebuilt at a cost of £30,000. Finally, in 1880, it passed into the hands of Mr. George Conquest, and attained success mainly in the production of melodrama and pantomime.

THE VICTORIA THEATRE, or the "Vic.," as it was more generally called, was the home of blood-curdling melodrama. It was originally named the Coburg, and here Edmund Kean acted, Paganini played, and Buckstone made his first appearance in London. In 1871 the Victoria ceased to exist as a theatre, and was turned into an educational establishment.

There were many theatres scattered in and around London which had curious histories, but our space will only justify us in barely naming them:—The City of London in Norton Folgate, the Standard in the same locality; the Grecian Theatre in the City Road; and the Britannia in Hoxton.

To the making of new theatres during the last quarter of the century there has been no end. Some arose and disappeared, such as the Holborn and the Queen's Theatre (formerly St. Martin's Hall, the scene of the labours of Mr. John Hullah). At the latter house the beautiful Mrs. Rousby appeared in *'Twixt Axe and Crown;* J. L. Toole often trod its boards, Henry Irving won his spurs in domestic drama; and Mrs. John Wood and Miss Ellen Terry played leading parts. The theatre was closed in 1878.

The Globe was opened in 1868; the Gaiety, formerly the Strand Music Hall, was opened in the same year, and under the management of Mr. John Hollingshead took a leading position among London theatres. "The Sacred Lamp of Burlesque," lighted by him in 1882 and fanned by Miss Nellie Farren, Mr. Fred Leslie, and a host of others, has never been allowed to go out. Toole's Theatre had a short existence. It

was the first home of *Les Cloches de Corneville* with Mr. Shiel Barry as the miser, and subsequently the scene of the labours of the famous Mr. J. L. Toole. The Vaudeville in the Strand has seen revivals of the classical comedies, *The School for Scandal*, &c., under the management of David James and Thomas Thorne, and the production of *Our Boys*, which has had a run probably unequalled by any play in the century, unless the record has been beaten by *The Private Secretary*. The Court Theatre, in Sloane Square, was opened in 1870 under the name of the "New Chelsea," afterwards the "Belgravia," and in 1871 as the "Royal Court." It was at this house that Gilbert's burlesque, *The Happy Land*, was produced in 1873. It was a political caricature of the existing Government, and created a great sensation. Later, Mr. Hare became manager and the Kendals appeared in some of their most popular characters. Mr. Wilson Barrett succeeded Mr. Hare with Madame Modjeska as leading lady, and was followed by Messrs. Clayton and Cecil, who introduced *The Magistrate* in 1885.

The Criterion was opened in 1874 and reconstructed in 1884, and is memorable for the delightful acting of Mr. Charles Wyndham, especially in his great character of *David Garrick*.

The Savoy, the scene of the great triumphs of Messrs. Gilbert and Sullivan, was opened in 1881. The Comedy, the Avenue, and the Novelty Theatres were opened between 1881 and 1882; the Prince of Wales (where the *Private Secretary* was first produced) in 1884; Terry's Theatre, in the Strand, in 1887; the Shaftesbury and the Lyric in 1888, and since that date there have sprung up the Garrick, the new Her Majesty's, the Duke of York's, Daly's Theatre, Wyndham's Theatre, the Great Queen Street Theatre, besides innumerable music halls in many of which dramatic sketches are given.

CHAPTER XXXIII.

THE GREAT EXHIBITION.

1851.

IT was on the 30th of June, 1849, at a meeting of the Society of Arts of which Prince Albert was President, that the Prince proposed a scheme he had long contemplated, namely, an Exhibition of the Works of All Nations, to be carried out under the auspices of that Society. The original idea was that the Exhibition should be divided into four sections; the first, raw materials and produce, illustrative of the natural productions upon which human industry is employed; the second, machinery for agricultural, manufacturing, engineering, and other purposes, and mechanical inventions illustrative of the agents which human ingenuity brings to bear upon the products of nature; the third, manufactures illustrative of the results produced by the operation of human industry upon natural produce; the fourth, sculpture, models, and the plastic arts generally, illustrative of the skill displayed in such applications of human industry.

To carry this idea into effect a Royal Commission was appointed and Prince Albert as President, spared neither time nor trouble to make the Exhibition the success it eventually became. It was a gigantic undertaking. In times past during the century there had been other Exhibitions in divers Continental cities, but never one that had been conceived on such a gigantic scale, or of such a cosmopolitan character as to include "All Nations." The first labours of the Commissioners comprehended arrangements as to the best mode of introducing the products of the Colonies and foreign countries—a work in which the high position, the strong influence, and the wide knowledge of the Prince were invaluable, the selection of a site; the nature of the building; and the general conduct of the Exhibition. In a shorter time than had been anticipated £64,000 was subscribed and a guarantee fund of £200,000 promised. After much difficulty, and not a little opposition, Hyde Park was fixed upon as the site, the design of Mr. (afterwards Sir Joseph) Paxton, at that time head gardener to the Duke of Devonshire, was selected for a building to be made of glass and iron, 2,100 feet long by 400 feet broad, the contract for carrying out the work was undertaken by Messrs. Fox & Henderson with an army of 2,000 labourers, and by the end of 1850 the extraordinary building was completed

A melancholy event marked one of the meetings of the Royal Commissioners. On the 30th of June, Sir Robert Peel attended it, and then proceeded to Buckingham Palace to sign his name in the Queen's book. On going up Constitution Hill his horse shied, Sir Robert was unseated and thrown, and as he kept tight hold of the reins, the animal fell upon him with its knees between his shoulders, and inflicted terrible internal injuries. Sir Robert lingered in great suffering until the 2nd of July, when he passed away mourned by princes and peasants and members of every political party as few public men had been mourned before. He was truly one of our greatest statesmen. He solved the difficult problem of turning our commercial system from protection to free trade; of carrying with him, through the transition, the confidence of his bitterest

cpponents. He was the one statesman of the time who was wise enough to discern the change that was coming over the nation—the great revolution that was then fermenting deep down in the national heart. In his new policy he has been compared and contrasted with Lord John Russell, thus:—"Lord John Russell openly announced his purpose to break down monopoly, marched straight up to the fortress, summoned the garrison, and sustained a decisive defeat at the hands of the troops whom he had taken the pains to warn of his attack. Sir Robert Peel, having the same end in view, carefully concealed his purpose, smoothed down suspicion, made his approaches only by slow, gradual, and almost imperceptible steps. Like the sagacious elephant, he proved the strength of every plank on the bridge before he trusted on it his full weight. In approaching his object he moved with the stealth of the wild cat, and had the prey fairly within his grasp before he made the decisive spring. We admire even where we cannot wholly approve. He damaged his reputation for frankness; but he saved his country."

J. D. Harding.

HYDE PARK IN 1851.

On the 1st of May, 1851, half a million of persons assembled in Hyde Park on the opening of the Great Exhibition. The Queen's own narrative of the events of the day is so extremely interesting that we quote it without apology:—"The Park presented a wonderful spectacle, crowds streaming through it, carriages and troops passing quite like the Coronation Day, and for me the same anxiety; no, much greater anxiety on account of my beloved Albert. The day was bright and all bustle and excitement. . . . The glimpse of the transept through the iron gates, the waving palms, flowers, statues, myriads of people filling the galleries and seats around, with the flourish of trumpets as we entered, gave us a sensation which I can never forget, and I felt much moved. We went for a moment to a little side room, where we left our shawls, and where we found Mamma and Mary (Duchess of Teck), and outside which were standing the other Princes. In a few seconds we proceeded, Albert leading me, having Vicky (Princess Royal) at his hand, and Bertie (Prince of Wales) holding mine. The sight as we came to the middle, where the steps and chair (which I did not sit upon)

were placed, with the beautiful crystal fountain in front of it, was magical—so vast, so glorious, so touching. One felt, as so many did whom I have since spoken to, filled with devotion, more so than by any service I have ever heard. The tremendous cheers, the joy expressed in every face, the immensity of the building, the mixture of palms, flowers, trees, statues, fountains, the organ (with six hundred instruments and two hundred voices, which sounded like nothing), and my beloved husband, the author of this peace festival, which united the industry of all nations of the earth—all this was moving indeed, and it was and is a day to live for ever. God bless my dearest Albert! God bless my dearest country, which has shown itself so great to-day! One felt so grateful to the Great God, who seemed to pervade all and to bless all. The only event it in the slightest degree reminded me of was the Coronation, but this day's festival was a thousand times superior."

PRINCE ALBERT READING REPORT BEFORE THE QUEEN AT OPENING OF EXHIBITION, 1851.

Thus, despite the fears that had been expressed in many quarters that the invasion of foreigners would lead to the assassination of the Queen on the opening day, and that rioting and revolution would ensue—despite the feeling of the eccentric Colonel Sibthorp, who, in the debate on the Address at the opening of Parliament, had prayed "that hail-storm or lightning might descend to defeat the ill-advised project in Hyde Park;" despite the incivilities and jealousies of the diplomatic body in London, who declined to present an address to the Queen—everything passed off well.

The London season of that year was one of the gayest in the annals of the century. The Duke of Buckingham took a voyage to France in Mr. Green's balloon; Bloomerism was attempted and failed; Mdlle. de Montijo (afterwards Empress of the French) was one of the distinguished belles of the season; Macready took his farewell of the stage; Sir E. B. Lytton's comedy, "Not so bad as we seem," was performed at Devonshire

House, in aid of the new Guild of Literature and Art, Charles Dickens, Douglas Jerrold, and Mark Lemon being among the actors; a fancy ball was given at Buckingham Palace, the characters representing the time of Charles II., and another, one of the most sumptuous ever given, took place at the Guildhall to celebrate the success of the Exhibition.

On the 11th of October the Exhibition closed, after having been visited by between six and seven millions of people; the surplus funds, amounting to £200,000, were appropriated to the purchase of the South Kensington Estate for the establishment of a permanent home for the encouragement of science and art, and the materials of the Hyde Park Exhibition were transferred to Sydenham for the construction of the Crystal Palace.

ROYAL COLLEGE OF SCIENCE, SOUTH KENSINGTON MUSEUM.

Although as a means of establishing peace and goodwill among the nations the Great Exhibition was a failure, it amply fulfilled its mission in other respects. It marked the commencement of a new era in the history of industrial progress; it accomplished the great purpose for which it was originated, namely, "to give a true test and a living picture of the point of development at which the whole of mankind had arrived, and a new starting point from which all nations should be able to direct their further exertions."

The half century that had closed had been pre-eminently distinguished for scientific discovery, expansion of industry and commerce, wide social reforms, in fact, almost all the great movements which have given the century its character were developed before the year 1851. Art, however, had been sadly neglected. It was considered to be as hopeless to look for figs on thistles as to expect that England should be a great art-loving, or art-appreciating, or art-producing people. The Great Exhibition brought about a marvellous change; it showed us wherein foreigners beat us, and what our own possibilities were, and from that time forth the real art-education of England began. It commenced with a reform of ordinary utensils, by showing how even pots and kettles can be made as

comely as they are solid. The latent desire of beauty existed, but it needed a great impulse to bring it out, and proper education to turn it to good account. This was given by the establishment of Schools of Art, and technical education, leading to the greater appreciation of our museums; a keener love of travel for Art's sake; the stimulus of prizes for drawing and designing, with the result that there rapidly grew up a wonderful improvement in productions of taste and of utility and a wide-spread appreciation of Art in all its branches.

In 1857 the South Kensington Museum was opened, and National Schools of Art, under the direction of the Committee of Council on Education, were established. The first Parliamentary grant to the schools, seventeen in all, was £6,850, which sufficed for 2,454 students. In 1863 the schools had increased to ninety, the pupils to 16,180, while the subsidy was reduced to £4,005; and the year after, they had become so flourishing that the House of Commons recommended they should for the future be left to rely on their own resources, which view was accepted by the Privy Council.

The Great Exhibition of 1851 inaugurated a new era in music. In the second half of the century music has undoubtedly made its greatest conquests in this country, and those who are old enough to compare the concerts of a Richter or a Mottl, or the ordinary Saturday concerts at the Crystal Palace of to-day with the meagre opportunities of musical culture possessed in 1851, will acknowledge that the progress of musical taste and knowledge has been one of the mightiest of the new forces of the century. The Queen and Prince Albert, both lovers of music and accomplished musicians, contributed much to this result. But to no one is the musical world more indebted than to Vincent Novello, the founder of the great house of Novello & Co., who cheapened and popularised the oratorios and other works of famous composers, and abolished those prohibitive prices which had kept printed music completely out of the hands of the people.

Until the later half of the century good music was only really beginning to be appreciated by the mass of the people; they had no ears to hear classical music, neither taste nor knowledge to appreciate it; a symphony or concerto would have been caviare to them. Up to that time we were almost entirely indebted to foreigners; there was practically no National School of Music, and England was twitted with the saying that "she had always been famous for paying others to do what she could not do for herself, but she generally ends by learning the trick." She did so in this case, and John Hullah in 1853 built and fitted up St. Martin's Hall in Long Acre, where every existing work of importance was performed, many for the first time; he established schools of music, and in less than twenty years 25,000 persons received the benefit of his personal instruction, while his "system" spread throughout the length and breadth of the land; public performances by amateurs were given; gatherings for the practice of concerted music were organised in all directions, and by degrees the programme of a musical party would include at least a considerable portion of some important work, until at last the stringed quartett (a form of composition demanding the most delicate execution on the part of the players, and considerable refinement of taste on the part of the listeners) was able to command a large audience.

Without making any invidious distinction it is probable that no one more greatly assisted the progress of singing in England than Mr. Henry Leslie, who organised a choir for the interpretation mainly of part-singing and sacred music. To such a pitch of perfection was the choir trained, and so delicate was the execution, that it is doubtful whether anywhere in the world there existed such a body of trained voices, both male and female. A musical critic has said that to hear Bach's Mottet, "The Spirit also

Helpeth," Mendelssohn's "Forty-third Psalm," or Schubert's "Thirty-third Psalm" by this choir, was to listen to a delicacy of execution which probably reached the limits of choral perfection.

We cannot pursue the subject further. It is enough for our purpose to indicate that one grand result of the Exhibition of 1851 was not only to nourish a friendly feeling towards other nations and to foster the material interests of our own country, but it developed an era of taste, of juster appreciation of art, and of all those elegancies and refinements of life which have added so greatly to the well-being of the community. Some one has said that "great nations write their autobiographies in three manuscripts—the book of their deeds, the book of their words, and the book of their art. Not one of these books can be understood unless we read the two others, but of the three, the only quite trustworthy one is the last."

An event of supreme importance in the development of the Empire occurred in 1851—the discovery of gold in Australia. One of the most perplexing problems that political economists and social reformers had to solve at that time was how to find employment for the unemployed, and how to relieve London and other over-crowded cities of their surplus population. The solution was found by Edward Hammond Hargreaves, a gentleman engaged in pastoral pursuits in Sydney, New South Wales. Gold had been discovered in California in 1847 by an enterprising expatriated Frenchman named Suter, and in 1849 Mr. Hargreaves went over there to "try his luck." He was much struck with the similarity of its geological features to those of Bathurst, and in 1851 he returned to New South Wales. Almost immediately, that is to say on the 12th of February of that year, he discovered gold at Lewis Ponds Creek, near Bathurst, and at once made its existence known to the world, thus gaining for himself the fame of being the first practical discoverer of the precious metal in the Colony.

Not wishing to be behind their neighbours, the Victorian authorities organised a Gold Discovery Committee and offered £200 for the "first local proofs" of the existence of gold in their own Colony. Now it so happened that James William Esmond, who had been a digger at California, had, like Hargreaves, been struck with the similarity in soil and general features of California with those in the neighbourhood of his own home at Clunes, and he determined to return to Victoria. By a strange coincidence—and it was nothing more—Hargreaves and Esmond were fellow-passengers on their return from California to Sydney. On Tuesday, the 1st of July, 1851, Esmond duly discovered gold, encrusted, it is true, with obstinate quartz, which there were no facilities for crushing. He at once made the discovery known, and the joyful intelligence spread all over the world.

"The discovery of gold in 1851," says the Rev. James Ballantyne, of Melbourne,* "changed, as by a wave of the magician's wand, every feature of life in Australia. The pulse of the community, which erstwhile beat quietly and steadily, at once mounted to fever-heat. There was but one theme on every lip, and that theme was 'gold.' It intoxicated the whole body of the people. They rushed pell-mell to the various spots where the dazzling metal was supposed to be obtainable. The labourer left his implements of toil, and ran. The mechanic quitted his bench. The clerk abruptly threw up his situation. The merchant left his counting-room. The barrister left his case unfinished. Melbourne was all but deserted. In the course of a few months about

* "Homes and Homesteads of Victoria."

one-half of the entire male population of the colony had left their wonted avocations and gone on the popular adventure. Then, too, the people came 'in hot haste' from the neighbouring colonies, crowd following crowd as fast as ships by sea and conveyances by land would bring them—men of every shade of character, and thousands with no character at all, each and everyone attracted by the bewildering glare of virgin gold.

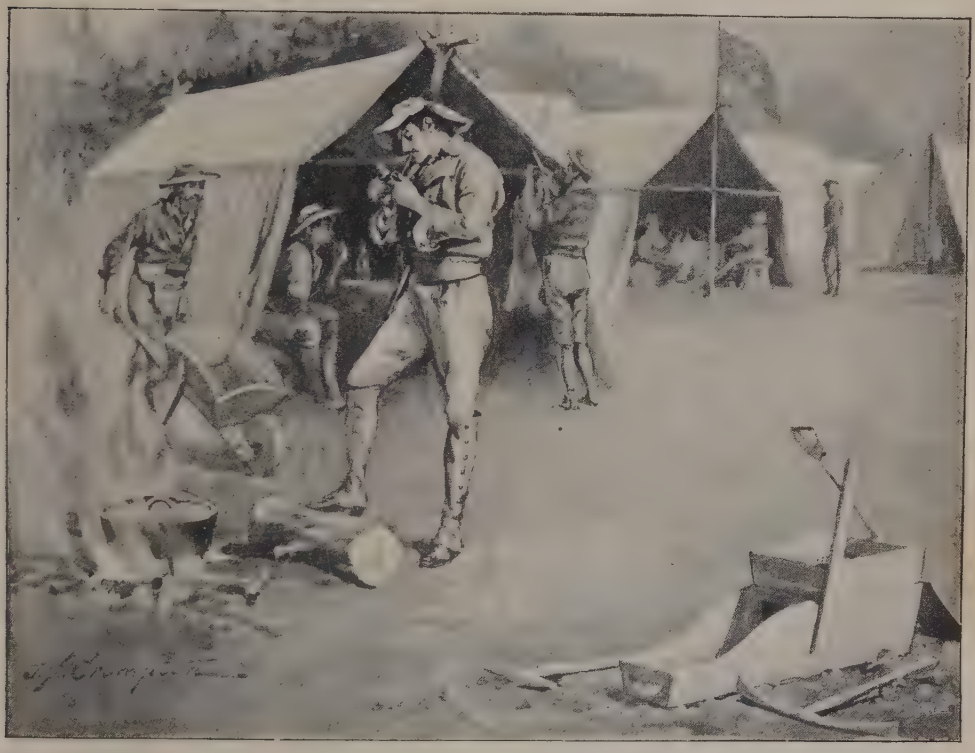
EARLY SETTLERS LANDING IN AUSTRALIA.

Little wonder that business came to a standstill, that the old land-marks were torn up, that the foundations of society were out of course."

Another local writer said: "Property that men had acquired with the design of holding it for ever, was thrown into the market and disposed of for whatever price it

would fetch. Horses and houses, bullocks and belongings of every description, all the little household treasures, were sacrificed, being regarded as worthless compared with the golden dreams shortly to be realised, alas, too often the wrong way."

As the tidings spread, ship-load after ship-load of gold-seekers, averaging 1,800 weekly, came into the Australian ports, and in the course of the following year 200,000 immigrants were on the diggings. By 1856 the population of Victoria was five times that of 1851; the yield of gold which, in 1852, was valued at £13,000,000 sterling, rose in 1860 to over £100,000,000; "and thus," says a historian, "the small colony of Victoria, like that of New South Wales, was, as the apt phrase goes, 'precipitated into a nation.'"



GOLD DIGGERS' CAMP IN AUSTRALIA.

The effect of the sudden exodus from the sister colonies to the goldfields was at first a source of great anxiety, as their very existence was threatened. In South Australia, for example, at least 15,000 to 20,000 individuals left that colony, and these included the greater part of the most useful labourers, involving a cessation of almost all industrial pursuits. The city and suburbs of Adelaide presented a most desolate and forsaken appearance, business was suspended, private houses were deserted, trade was paralysed, and a financial crisis was imminent. New Zealand and Tasmania were denuded of their male population, and all ordinary occupations were threatened with extinction.

Great and permanent benefit, however, resulted from the enormous influx of population into the Colonies. Gold seekers who were unsuccessful—and they could be numbered by thousands—had to follow other pursuits, and as the one thing in particular that Australia at that time required was labour, this great accession of strength was very

beneficial. Many industries were developed; the resources of the country became better known; some who had "made their pile" at the diggings settled down and traded in the towns and cities, circulating their money freely; the squatter became rich upon the enormously increased prices of his stock, and the agriculturalist by the enhanced value of flour that at one time brought, on the diggings, £200 a ton.

Gold mining eventually found its level as one of the permanent industries of the colony, and Victoria has ever since remained one of the chief gold-producing centres of the world. More than £250,000,000 worth of the precious metal has been extracted from its mines, and even at the close of the half century during which they have been in working, gold, to the value of £4,000,000 per annum is still exported, all the metal having to be crushed by machinery from the solid quartz reef.

As the resources of the country became more widely known fresh immigrants poured into it; the over-crowded population of the Old World sold all that it had to have a stake in the new El Dorado. The effect in England of the discovery of gold just when, under free trade, our commerce was expanding in every direction, was extremely advantageous. By furnishing extraordinary supplies of money at this important period, it prevented those serious disasters which had been feared by political economists, namely, of the demand for gold outrunning the supply and so suddenly increasing the value of the metal, which would have proved very serious in upsetting the monetary arrangements of the country. Although, for a time, the depletion of the labour market at home was a drawback, especially as there was a great demand for British goods in the Australian colonies, the after-effect gave an enormous impetus to industry and caused a steady rise in the value of all skilled labour.

And so it came to pass that by the wonderful discovery of gold our colonies in Australia, which it was feared before 1851 would not reach any higher position than a great pastoral country mainly occupied by squatters, or at most would only be somewhat insignificant dependencies of Great Britain, have sprung into a high place among the nations of the world

SUMMER HILL CREEK, NEAR BATHURST, 1851.

CHAPTER XXXIV.

NAPOLEON III. AND LORD PALMERSTON

THE belief that the International Exhibition would bring peace to the nations was rudely shaken a few weeks after the Exhibition closed. On the 4th of November, 1851, the Prince-President of the French Republic—whose policy had for the three years that he had held that position been regarded with universal suspicion—said in his message to the Assembly:—"A vast demagogical conspiracy is now organising in France and Europe. Secret societies are endeavouring to extend their ramifications even into the smallest communes. All the madness and violence of party is brought forth. While those men are not even agreed on persons or things, they are agreed to meet in 1852, not to construct, but to overthrow. Your patriotism and your courage, with which I shall endeavour to keep pace, will, I am sure, save France from the danger with which she is threatened."

Taking advantage of the unpopularity of some acts of the Republican Deputies, and of the popularity of the name of "Napoleon" among the soldiers and the peasantry, he determined to overthrow the Republic which he had sworn to defend, and to secure absolute power for himself. On the night of the 1st of December, the Prince-President and his clique of conspirators, among whom were De Morny, Persigny, Fleury, and Maupas, brought matters to a crisis. Three decrees were drawn up, secretly printed, and before daylight were posted on the walls of Paris. One of the proclamations ran thus:—"In the name of the French people, the President of the Republic decrees:—1. The National Assembly is dissolved. 2. Universal suffrage is re-established. 3. The French people is convoked in its elective colleges from the 14th of December to the 21st of December following. 4. The state of siege is decreed throughout the first military division. 5. The Council of State is dissolved. 6. The Minister of the Interior is charged with the execution of the present decree. (Signed) Louis Napoleon Bonaparte. De Morny, Minister of the Interior, Palace of the Elysée, Dec. 2."

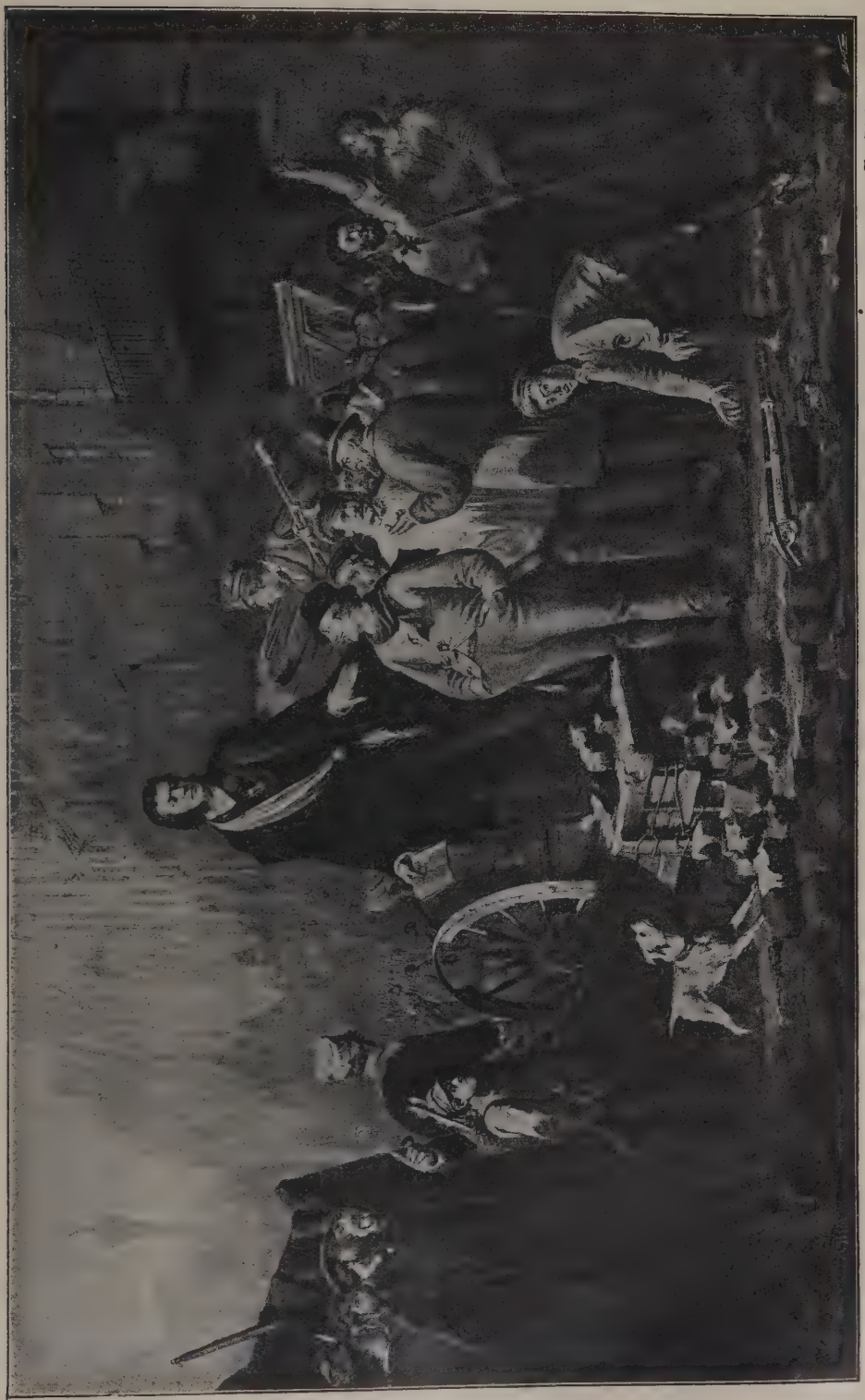
PRINCE LOUIS NAPOLEON, 1852.

A second proclamation submitted a new programme to the electors. The President said :—"Persuaded that the instability of the Government and the preponderance of a single Assembly are permanent causes of trouble and disorder, I submit to your suffrages the following fundamental basis of a Constitution, which Assemblies will afterwards develop :—(1) A responsible head, named for ten years; (2) Ministers dependent on the Executive Power alone; (3) a Council of State formed of the most eminent men, preparing the laws, and supporting the discussion of them before the Legislative Body; (4) a Legislative Body, discussing and voting laws, named by universal suffrage, without *scrutin de liste*, which falsifies the election; (5) a second Assembly formed of all the illustrious of the country, a preponderating power guardian of the fundamental compact and of public liberties."

A third proclamation was addressed to the army. "Vote," the President wrote, "freely as citizens, but do not forget that passive obedience to the orders of the Chief of the Government is the rigorous duty of the army, from the general down to the soldier. It is for me, who am responsible for my actions before the people and posterity, to adopt the measures most conducive to the public welfare."

When these placards were read by the people the excitement became intense. They found that the city was well occupied by troops, and that the most distinguished generals and members of the Assembly, to whom those who were in favour of law and order might have turned for help, had been arrested and were in prison. In the emergency the deputies who were still free made their way into the Hall of Assembly by a side passage, and attempted to carry on some necessary business. They were, however, rudely dispersed by the soldiery, and fled to the Mairie of the Tenth Arrondissement, where they voted the act of the Prince-President to be high treason, and enjoined the High Court of Justice to proceed immediately to judgment. While they were in the act of signing the decree, the military broke in upon the Assembly, seized every member and locked them up in the barracks on the Quai d'Orsay. Other members of the Assembly, who had not been present at the meeting, gathered the people together in the Faubourg St. Antoine, and erected a small barricade at the corner of the Rue St. Marguerite. Against this there marched a battalion of the 19th Regiment. "And then," says Kinglake, "there occurred a scene which may make one smile for a moment, and may then almost force one to admire the touching pedantry of brave men who imagined that without policy or warlike means they could be strong with the bare strength of the law. Laying aside their firearms, and throwing across their shoulders scarves which marked them as representatives of the people, the deputies ranged themselves in front of the barricade, and one of them, Charles Baudin, held ready in his hand the Book of the Constitution. When the head of the column was within a few yards of the barricade, it was halted; for some moments there was silence. Law and Force had met." While Baudin was addressing the people, the officer in command gave a sign, "and suddenly the muskets of the front-rank men came down, came up, came level, and in another instant their fire pelted straight into the group of the scarfed deputies. Baudin fell dead, his head being pierced by more than one ball. The Book of the Constitution had fallen to the ground, and the defenders of the law recurred to their firearms."

Next day a hundred barricades were erected in different parts of the city, and these were attacked by troops and carried, after great loss of life on the part of the populace. A rumour went abroad that shots had been fired from certain shops, and one of them was, in revenge, riddled with cannon, and at least thirty of the workmen killed. Without the



E. Pichio.

BAUDIN ON THE BARRICADE, 1852.

slightest justification the military fired on houses in the most wanton manner; cleared the boulevards by large bodies of lancers, attacked peaceful passers-by, and with the most dastardly brutality even fired at the people at the windows, killing large numbers of harmless folk who were merely looking at what was going on in the streets. At one of the larger barricades—that at the Porte St. Martin—hard fighting continued for two hours without a pause, and from fifty to a hundred people were slain.

As it had been recklessly stated that many distinguished statesmen and generals had conspired against the Prince-President their houses were ransacked, but without any trace of evidence being found against them. In the provinces some 10,000 persons, it is alleged, were seized and afterwards transported to penal settlements, without having been convicted by any form of legal trial.

On the cessation of hostilities the President issued an address to the people, in which he said:—"Frenchmen! the disturbances are appeased. Whatever may be the decision of the people, society is saved. The first part of my task is accomplished. The appeal to the nation, for the purpose of terminating the struggles of parties, I knew would not cause any serious risk to the public tranquility. Why should the people have risen against me? If I do not any longer possess your confidence—if your ideas are changed—there is no occasion to make precious blood flow; it will be sufficient to place an adverse vote in the urn. I shall always respect the decision of the people."

Having destroyed the Constitution by violence Louis Napoleon proceeded to appeal for a vote of indemnity to a nation "which had no alternative but to choose between him and anarchy." The result of this appeal was a vote in his favour of 7,439,219 against 640,737.

On the 1st of January, 1852, a grand religious ceremony took place in Nôtre Dame to inaugurate Louis Napoleon's acceptance of the ten years' Presidency. Immediately afterwards he announced his intention to adopt the symbols which recalled the glory of the Empire, especially the national flag that had been deprived of the "renowned emblem which conducted our soldiers to victory in a hundred battles," and he decreed that the French eagle should be re-established on the colours of the army, and that it should also be re-established on the Cross of the Legion of Honour.

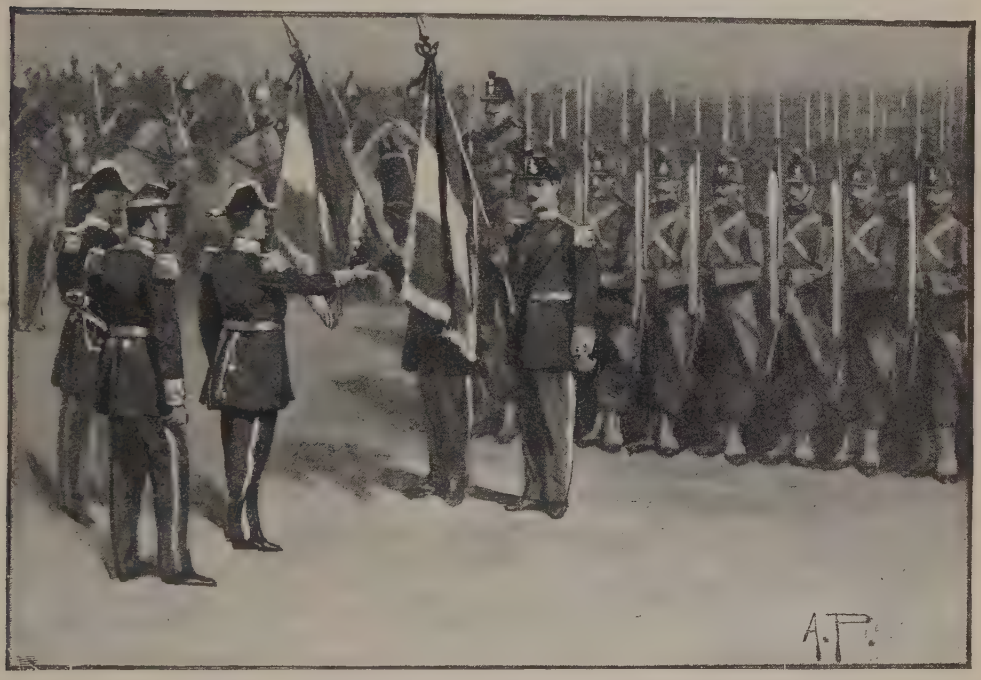
It was the beginning of the end of the Republic. Soon after the new Constitution was issued he proceeded to confiscate the property of the Orleans family and to proclaim the birthday of Napoleon I. as a national holiday. A little later, at the swearing in of the Senate and Legislative Body, he hinted that the Empire might yet be called into existence as a necessity. "If by under-hand intrigues," he said, "parties endeavour to sap the basis of my government; if, in their blindness, they contest the legitimacy of the popular election; if, finally, they endanger by their incessant attacks the future prospects of the country; then, and only then, it may be reasonable to demand from the people, in the name of the repose of France, a new title which will irrevocably fix upon my head the power with which they invested me."

To this intimation Russia and Prussia replied that such a proceeding would be a violation of the treaties of 1814-15, which excluded the family of Bonaparte from the throne of France for ever. But no action was taken.

When, in May, the President distributed the eagles and standards to the army, assembled with imposing splendour in the Champs de Mars, he said "Soldiers! the history of nations is in a great measure the history of armies. The Roman eagle, adopted by the Emperor Napoleon at the commencement of this century, was the most striking signification of the regeneration and of the grandeur of France. It disappeared

in our misfortunes, it ought to return when France, recovered from her defeats and mistress of herself, seems not any longer to repudiate her own glory. Soldiers ! resume these eagles, not as a menace against foreign powers, but as the symbol of our independence, as the souvenir of an heroic epoch, as a sign of the nobleness of each regiment. Take again the eagles which have so often led our fathers to victory ; and swear to die if necessary in their defence."

Towards the close of the year matters developed so rapidly that they soon came to a crisis. While making a "progress" in various Departments, the people welcomed the Prince-President as Emperor elect. Thus, on the 7th of October, the town of Sèvres, "obeying its sentiments of affection and gratitude for Prince Louis Napoleon Bonaparte,



NAPOLEON DISTRIBUTING EAGLES IN THE CHAMPS DE MARS.

the envoy of God, and the elect of France, her saviour and her glory, proclaims him Emperor of the French under the name of Napoleon III., and confers on him and his descendants hereditary right."

Two days later, addressing the Chamber of Commerce at Bordeaux, the President foreshadowed the policy he intended to pursue in the event of his becoming Emperor. "To promote the welfare of the country," he said, "it is not necessary to adopt new systems, but the chief point above all is to produce confidence in the present and security for the future. For these reasons, it seems, France desires a return to the Empire. There is one objection to which I must reply. Certain minds seem to entertain a dread of war ; certain persons say the Empire is only war. But I say the Empire is peace, for France desires it, and when France is satisfied the world is tranquil. We have immense waste territories to cultivate, roads to open, ports to dig, rivers to render navigable, a system of railroads to complete ; we have opposite to Marseilles a vast

kingdom, which we must assimilate to France; we have to bring all our great Western ports into connection with the American continent, by a rapidity of communication which we still want; lastly, we have ruins to restore, false gods to overthrow, and truths to be made triumphant. This is the sense which I attach to the Empire, if the Empire is to be restored. Such are the conquests which I contemplate; and all you who surround me, and who, like me, desire your country's welfare—you are my soldiers. Glory descends by inheritance, but not war."

On his return to Paris, the President met with a royal reception, and was presented with addresses from the Municipal Council, imploring him to yield to the wishes of his entire people, "by resuming the crown of the immortal founder of your dynasty, as it is only under the title of Emperor that you can accomplish the promises of the magnificent programme you addressed to attentive Europe at Bordeaux."

On November 7th the French Senate passed a *Senatus Consultum* re-establishing the Imperial Dynasty; Louis Napoleon to be Emperor with the title of Napoleon III.; the Imperial dignity to be hereditary in the direct descendants, natural and legitimate, of Louis Napoleon Bonaparte from male to male by order of primogeniture and to the perpetual exclusion of the females and their descendants.

The result of the appeal to the people on the subject of reviving the Empire was announced by the Corps Législatif on the 1st of December, as:—Ayes, 7,864,189; Noes, 253,145; Nil, 63,326; and on the following day—the anniversary of the coup d'état—the proclamation of the Empire took place at Paris.

We must now go back to the date of the coup d'état to trace one curious effect of that movement in our own country.

When the news reached England the whole country was filled with horror and consternation at the cruel massacre of peaceful citizens, and in condemnation of Louis Napoleon's policy carried to success in so savage a manner. The Queen, who was then at Osborne, wrote at once to the Premier (Lord John Russell) expressing her desire that Lord Normanby, the British Ambassador at Paris, should be immediately informed "it was her Majesty's desire that nothing should be done by her Ambassador at Paris which could wear the appearance of an interference of any kind in the internal affairs of France." This was communicated in the usual manner by Lord Palmerston, and Lord Normanby called accordingly on M. Turgot, Minister of Foreign Affairs, to acquaint him with the information, and to apologise for delay in its delivery. M. Turgot replied, somewhat sarcastically, that the delay was not of importance as he had two days before heard from M. Walewski (the French Envoy in London) that Lord Palmerston had expressed to him entire approbation of the act of the President, and his conviction that he could not have acted otherwise than he had done.

When Lord Normanby's dispatch, recording this interview, reached the Queen, she wrote at once to Lord John Russell, asking him if he knew anything of the alleged approval of Lord Palmerston. Lord John made all necessary inquiries and found there was no doubt whatever that, in defiance of the personal wishes and instructions of the Queen, without her knowledge and against her judgment, in spite, too, of a resolution of the Cabinet, the Foreign Minister *had* expressed strong approval of the coup d'état. Lord Palmerston treated the affair in his usual jaunty and reckless manner; but as this

was one of a series of somewhat similar offences, the Prime Minister was in no mood to be trifled with, and determined that he would have nothing more to do with him as Foreign Secretary. Lord John wrote to Palmerston, therefore, in these terms :—

"While I concur in the foreign policy of which you have been the adviser, and much as I admire the energy and ability with which it has been carried into effect, I cannot but observe that misunderstandings perpetually renewed, violations of prudence and decorum too frequently repeated, have marred the effects which ought to have followed from a sound policy and able administration. I am, therefore, most reluctantly compelled to come to the conclusion that the conduct of foreign affairs can no longer be left in your hands with advantage to the country."

Lord Palmerston at once sent in his resignation—which the Queen was only too glad to accept—excusing himself on the ground that his approval of the coup d'état was the expression of a personal and not of an official opinion.

The news of the dismissal of the Foreign Minister produced a sensation in political circles almost unprecedented. It was then December, Parliament would not meet until February, and in the meantime the anxiety to know "all about" the dismissal was very keen. At length, on the 3rd of February, Lord John Russell, in a remarkable speech, told the whole story of the differences that had long existed, not only between Lord Palmerston and his colleagues, but also between the Foreign Minister and the Queen. As the speech of Lord John touched upon a Constitutional question not so well understood as it should be, and as it has a distinctly historic interest, we venture to quote a part of it. "It will be right," he said, "that I should state to the House what I conceive to be the position which a Secretary of State holds as regards the Crown in the administration of Foreign Affairs, and as regards the Prime Minister of this country. With respect to the first, I should state that when the Crown, in consequence of a vote of the House of Commons, places its Constitutional confidence in a Minister, that Minister is, on the other hand, bound to afford to the Crown the most frank and full detail of every measure that is taken, or to leave to the Crown its full liberty, a liberty which the Crown must possess, of saying that the Minister no longer possesses its confidence. Such I hold to be the general doctrine. But as regards the noble lord it did so happen that in August, 1850, the precise terms were laid down in a communication on the part of Her Majesty with respect to the transaction of business between the Crown and the Secretary of State. I became the organ of making that communication to my noble friend, and thus became responsible for the document I am about to read." Lord John Russell then, to the utter confusion of Lord Palmerston, and to the intense surprise of all present, read the following extract from a letter addressed by the Queen to Lord Palmerston :—"The Queen requires; first, that Lord Palmerston should distinctly state what he proposes in a given case, in order that the Queen may know as distinctly to what she is giving her royal sanction. Secondly, that having once given her sanction to a measure, that it be not arbitrarily altered or modified by the Minister. Such an act she must consider as failing in sincerity towards the Crown, and justly to be visited by the exercise of her constitutional right of dismissing that Minister. She expects to be kept informed of what passes between him and the Foreign Ministers before important decisions are taken based upon that intercourse; to receive the foreign dispatches in good time; and to have the drafts for her approval sent to her in sufficient time to make herself acquainted with their contents before they must be sent off. The Queen thinks it proper that Lord John Russell should show this letter to Lord Palmerston."

It was then demonstrated, very clearly, that Lord Palmerston had again and again taken important political steps without consulting either his Sovereign or his colleagues, and his defence was as weak as the charges brought against were strong.

"In all my experience," says Mr. Greville, "I never recollect such a triumph as Lord John Russell achieved, and such complete discomfiture as Palmerston's. . . . Palmerston it is pretty certain was taken by surprise and was unprepared for all that John Russell brought forward. Not a man of weight or influence said a word for him, nobody but Milnes and Dudley Stuart. The Queen's letter was decisive, for it was evident his conduct must have been intolerable to elicit such charges and rebukes; and it cannot fail to strike everybody that no man of common spirit, and who felt a consciousness of innocence would have brooked anything so insulting." *

Many people thought that by his dismissal—an extreme exercise of the royal prerogative—his political career was closed. But this was far from being the case, and in a very short time he had his revenge on his old colleagues.

The course of events in France, the rumours that the Prince-President would enter upon a career of "glory" in order to establish the Bonapartist Empire, the fear that one of his first great acts would be an invasion of England, brought about an outcry for the strengthening of the defences of the country, and, as the militia was at the time in a very inefficient state, Lord John Russell, in deference to public opinion, introduced a Militia Bill.

It was a poor Bill, the main feature of which was to substitute a *local* Militia—that is to say, a force for service in counties—for the *regular* force that had hitherto been liable to serve in any part of the United Kingdom.

In the details of the Bill Palmerston saw many weak places that he could assail, and he did it with a vengeance. He moved an amendment in favour of organising a "general" instead of a "local" Militia—the exact opposite of Lord Russell's scheme—and carried it by a majority of eleven, forcing the Prime Minister to announce that he could no longer continue in office.

"I have had my tit-for-tat with John Russell," Palmerston wrote to his brother, "I turned him out on Friday last!"

* Greville's "Journal" Vol. III. 447.

THE PALACE OF VERSAILLES.

CHAPTER XXXV.

THE CRIMEAN WAR.

FOR a few months after the defeat of Lord John Russell's Government the Conservatives were in power, with the Earl of Derby as Prime Minister and Mr. Disraeli as Chancellor of the Exchequer; but before the end of the year (1852) the financial propositions of Mr. Disraeli caused the new Government to resign. A coalition Ministry then came into power, with the Earl of Aberdeen as Prime Minister, Mr. Gladstone Chancellor of the Exchequer, Lord Palmerston Home Secretary, Lord John Russell Foreign Secretary (succeeded in 1853 by Lord Clarendon), the Duke of Newcastle Colonial Secretary, Mr. Sidney Herbert Secretary at War, Sir James Graham First Lord of the Admiralty, and Sir C. Wood President of the Board of Control.

"The success of our excellent Aberdeen's arduous task," wrote the Queen to the King of the Belgians, "and the formation of so brilliant and strong a Cabinet would, I am sure, please you. It is the realisation of the country's and our own most ardent wishes, and it deserves success, and will, I think, command support."

These hopes at first seemed to be well grounded; Lord Aberdeen was a quiet, peace-loving man; a scholar, and a gentleman. Mr. Gladstone at once distinguished himself as a prince of financiers, and "his Budget of 1853 was," says Greville, "a great scheme, boldly, skilfully, and honestly devised, and has raised Gladstone to a great political elevation"—altogether it was the ablest Cabinet that had ruled England since the Ministry of "All the Talents." But clouds, dark and ominous, were rising in the East, and the Aberdeen Ministry will be remembered, not for its home policy, but for the great war that broke the peace of nearly forty years, and opened one of the most important chapters of our national history.

The origin of the war between Turkey and Russia, and the invasion of the Crimea, in which the allied forces of England, France and Turkey took part, may be briefly told. For many years—in fact, since 1815—Russia had been gradually but surely exciting the jealousy, the suspicion, and the fear of Europe by her surprising growth and her rapid increase in strength as a great military and naval power. The Emperor Nicholas, a proud, ambitious, passionate man, was believed to command almost a million of men under arms; he was the only monarch who had so extended the boundaries of his empire, and so established his influence in other States, as to threaten the balance of power in Europe. "He had scarcely deigned to veil his designs upon Turkey, the conquest and fall of which would give him additional power dangerous to the liberties of Europe. His influence over Prussia and Austria was gradually reducing those States almost to the condition of dependants, upon whose political and military support he could always rely. It was suspected, not without cause, that he had designs upon India, and had contrived artfully devised schemes to secure Denmark and obtain the entire command of the outlets of the Baltic Sea. An uneasy feeling was day by day growing up in Western Europe, and especially among those who loved freedom and constitutional government. In England it was probably greater than elsewhere. It had been nourished

and excited by certain politicians who saw, in the extension of the eastern frontiers of Russia, danger to our Indian Empire. It had been fomented by several ingenious writers, who, in passionate appeals to the English people, denounced the rapid encroachments of a semi-barbarous Power, and described the Imperial eagle as hovering over our Indian possessions, and only awaiting the favourable moment to pounce upon its prey."* The object of Russia was now to obtain such a paramount hold over the Turkish Empire as to render it entirely dependent upon her will and caprice, and to ensure the inheritance when the time came, so long predicted, of its dissolution.

With regard to the French Emperor, he was panting to distinguish himself, to establish more firmly his somewhat precarious throne, and to fascinate the minds of his people by pursuing "a brilliant foreign policy." He detested Russia, and his people shared his hatred; he was particularly anxious to be recognised as an Ally of England, which would bring him prestige among the nations. Moreover, France had, since the time of Louis XIV. exercised a protectorate over certain religious establishments in Palestine, a part of the Turkish dominions. This privilege was gradually extended until she claimed some kind of actual right to protect all the Roman Catholic subjects of Turkey. The Roman Catholic priests, who were successfully engaged in spreading the doctrines of their faith, were being brought into rivalry with the Greek priesthood, who, in their fears, appealed to Russia, the protector of their religion, and excited her jealousy by describing the progress made by their French rivals. It was not difficult, therefore, to bring Russia and France, as representing the opposing faiths, into a political struggle.

But the Crimean War was not undertaken either by England or by France out of any merely philanthropic passion for the relief of the Christian subjects of Turkey. "England went into the war because her statesmen believed that Russia was growing too strong and too aggressive, and ought to be checked. France went into the war because Louis Napoleon wanted a grand military enterprise."†

It was not on the ground of the Czar's extension of his temporal Empire that a pretext for war was found, but of his still vaster spiritual dominion. He was the head, or sovereign pontiff, of the Greek Church, and claimed to have authority not only over his own subjects but over numerous co-religionists in Greece and Turkey and elsewhere. France, in somewhat like manner, claimed and exercised a protectorate over the Latin Christians of the Levant, and shared with Russia the right of entrée to the "Holy Places" in Palestine connected with the Life and Death of the Saviour of the World. A question rose as to whom certain of these Holy Places belonged and who should have the control and guardianship of them.

The Church at Bethlehem, containing the Grotto in which our Lord is supposed to have been born, was the scene of the dispute which eventually led to the Crimean War.

The Greeks held the key of the great door of the Church; the Latins claimed that they should have it, and no longer be content with a key to an inferior door! They also urged that they should have one of the keys of each of the two doors of the Sacred Manger and be at liberty to place in the sanctuary of the Nativity a silver star adorned with the arms of France. In pursuance of urgent instructions from the French Emperor, M. de Lavalette pressed his case with such success at Constantinople in December, 1852, that the Latin Patriarch, amid great ceremony, was permitted to place the glittering star in the sanctuary of Bethlehem, and there was handed over to him, at the same time, the key of the great door of the Church and the keys of the Sacred Manger.

* "Quarterly Review," April, 1863. † Mc.Carthy's "Modern England," page 207

The Emperor Nicholas was indignant and wrathful, and proceeded straight away to assert his protectorate over the Greek Christians in Turkey, by sending Prince Menschikoff on an Embassy to Constantinople, with instructions to demand a formal treaty, the effect of which would be to give an enormous increase to the power of the Czar, and to bring about the termination of the independence of Turkey.

Before he took this step he was anxious to secure the neutrality of England, and proceeded, early in 1853, to sound Sir Hamilton Seymour, the British Minister at St. Petersburg, on the subject.

CHURCH OF THE NATIVITY, BETHLEHEM.

"I tell you," the Emperor is reported to have said, "that if your Government has been led to believe that Turkey retains any element of existence, your Government must have received incorrect information. I repeat to you that the sick man is dying, and we can never allow such an event to take us by surprise. We must come to some understanding; and this we should do, I am convinced, if I could hold but ten minutes' conversation with your Ministers—with Lord Aberdeen, for instance, who knows me so well, who has full confidence in me, as I have in him. And, remember, I do not ask for a treaty or a protocol; a general understanding is all I require—that between gentlemen is sufficient;

and, in this case, I am certain that the confidence would be as great on the side of the Queen's Ministers as on mine." On the 22nd February the Emperor said: "There are several things which I will never tolerate. I will begin with ourselves. I will not tolerate the permanent occupation of Constantinople by the Russians. Having said this, I will say that it never shall be held by the English or French, or any other great nation. Again, I will never permit an attempt at the reconstruction of a Byzantine Empire, or such an extension of Greece as would render her a powerful State; still less will I permit the breaking-up of Turkey into little republics—asylums for the Kossuths and Mazzinis, and other revolutionists of Europe. Rather than submit to any of these arrangements, I would go to war, and, as long as I have a man and a musket left, would carry it on."

Sir Hamilton Seymour would, of course, have nothing to do with the plots hinted at in these confidential communications, except to report them in the proper quarters, where the indelible impression was formed that no trust could henceforth be placed in the Czar.

The mission of Menschikoff to Constantinople failed. The English Ambassador, Sir Stratford Canning (soon afterwards Lord Stratford de Redcliffe), completely outwitted the overbearing and blustering Menschikoff, who retired from Constantinople, breathing out threatening and slaughter. The Czar at once determined to bring pressure on the Sultan of Turkey, and proceeded to occupy Moldavia and Wallachia, the so-called Danubian Principalities, then subject to Turkey, but long since the free Kingdom of Roumania. He issued a manifesto in which he declared that "having exhausted all the means of persuasion, and all the means of obtaining in a friendly manner the satisfaction due to our just reclamations, we have deemed it indispensable to order our troops to enter the Danubian Principalities, and thus show the Porte how far its obstinacy may lead it. Nevertheless, even now, it is not our intention to commence war. By the occupation of the Principalities, we wish to have in our hands a pledge which will guarantee to us in every respect the re-establishment of our just rights."

On the 2nd of July, 1853, the Russian army, under Prince Gortschakoff, crossed the Pruth, and England and France then found themselves on the brink of war. A Conference of the four great Powers—Great Britain, France, Austria, and Prussia—resulted in the famous Vienna Note, which suggested plans for the settlement of the dispute; Turkey, however, refused to acquiesce in the Note, and on the 5th of October, the Porte issued a formal declaration of war against Russia. On the 14th of the same month, the combined fleets of England and France, which were at that time in Besika Bay, moved, at the invitation of the Sultan, into the Dardanelles.

Russia first assumed a threatening attitude towards Turkey by concentrating her troops upon the frontier of the Principalities but no combined action was taken by the great Powers. When, by the withdrawal of the Russian mission from Constantinople and the passage of the Pruth by the Russian army, hostilities became imminent, the English Government first expressed a desire to act in concert with the Government of France. France, no doubt, took the first step by sending her fleet to the East; soon after that, orders were given for the allied fleets to proceed to the Dardanelles.

When the Emperor of Russia received from the Porte a formal declaration of war, he issued a manifesto in which, referring to the one we have already quoted, issued on the 26th of June, he said:—"Our expectation has been deceived. The chief Powers of Europe have in vain sought by their exhortations to shake the blind obstinacy of the Ottoman Government. It is by a declaration of war, by a proclamation filled with lying accusations against Russia, that it has responded to the pacific efforts of Europe, as well

as to our own spirit of long-suffering. At last, enrolling in the ranks of its army revolutionary exiles from all countries, the Porte has just commenced hostilities on the Danube. Russia is challenged to the combat, and she has no other course left her than, putting her trust in God, to have recourse to force of arms, and so compel the Ottoman Government to respect treaties, and obtain reparation for the insults with which it has responded to our most moderate demands, and to our most legitimate solicitude for the defence of the orthodox faith in the East, professed also by the people of Russia. We are firmly convinced that our faithful subjects will join their prayers to those which we address to the Almighty, beseeching Him to bless with His hand our arms in this just and holy cause, which has always found ardent defenders in our ancestors. *In te, Domine, speravi; non confundar in æternum.* NICHOLAS."

The action of Russia in occupying the Principalities was condemned throughout Europe, but especially in England and France, and soon after an event occurred which sent such a thrill of horror through those countries that war with Russia on behalf of Turkey seemed inevitable.

A squadron of Turkish frigates was lying at Sinope, on the southern shore of the Black Sea; the Russian fleet bore down upon them; a desperate fight, at long odds on the part of Turkey, ensued; but the case was hopeless—the whole Turkish squadron was destroyed, 4,000 Turks were killed, the survivors were only 400, of whom every man was wounded, while Sinope itself was knocked to pieces by the Russian guns. It was a cruel and horrible piece of butchery, and will always be known in history as the "Massacre of Sinope!"

When the tidings of this outrage reached England there was a universal cry for vengeance; the people were furious. This thing had been done almost under the eyes of the combined fleets of England and France; it was a direct challenge to England; and in March, England and France, as well as Turkey, were at war with Russia.

It would be foreign to our purpose to tell how on receipt of the news of the massacre at Sinope Lord Palmerston resigned his office, to resume it, however, a few days later; how Prince Albert was mercilessly accused of being a spy of Russia; and how rumours went forth and were believed that he had been committed to the Tower on a charge of high treason! how the English people clamoured for war, while the French people hated the very idea of it; how Lord Aberdeen cried out for peace, but was driven forward by Palmerston, who was described as "the only man who could save the honour of England."

There is no doubt that the Czar thought he could venture much upon the long-suffering and forbearance of the English people, when he knew that their Prime Minister openly avowed, in season and out of season, his hatred of war, and determination at all hazards to maintain peace. Almost everybody, except Lord Aberdeen, saw that war was inevitable. "He saw the shadow of war looming over us and yet he had an inner persuasion that the monster itself would never come." These mixed feelings gave birth to half measures. Hence arose that confusion, that want, and that suffering which marked the commencement of the war, and led to so many disasters. "As Lord Aberdeen's love of peace caused us to drift into war, so it rendered us unprepared for war when we were in it." Reluctantly he was urged on by Lord Palmerston to join the Emperor of the French in calling upon the Czar to withdraw his troops from the Principalities; an ultimatum that was promptly rejected. In February, 1854, the Czar issued a manifesto in which he said "England and France have ranged themselves by

the side of the enemies of Christianity against Russia fighting for the orthodox faith. But Russia will not alter her divine mission; and if enemies fall upon her frontiers, we are ready to meet them with the firmness which our ancestors have bequeathed to us."

On the 24th of March, Her Majesty's formal declaration of War was proclaimed from the steps of the Royal Exchange, and in the *London Gazette* the causes of war were declared. The declaration began as follows :—

"It is with deep regret that her Majesty announces the failure of her anxious and protracted endeavours to preserve for her people and for Europe the blessings of peace. The unprovoked aggression of the Emperor of Russia against the Sublime Porte has been persisted in with such disregard of consequences that, after the rejection by the Emperor of Russia of terms which the Emperor of Austria, the Emperor of the French, and the King of Prussia, as well as her Majesty, considered just and equitable, her Majesty is compelled, by a sense of what is due to the honour of her crown, to the interests of her people, and to the independence of the states of Europe, to come forward in defence of an ally whose territory is invaded, and whose dignity and independence are assailed. . . . ."

At the time when all this happened, England was anything but ready to commence hostilities. For forty years there had been no great war, the War Department of the State had, in all its branches, lapsed into lethargy, the various regiments had little or no knowledge of practical warfare, or even of the hardships of campaigning in foreign climes. A camp had been established at Chobham in the previous year, but there were no such advantages obtained from it, as from the Aldershot of a later day.

Lord Raglan was appointed to command the English army. He was then sixty-six years of age, and had seen his best days. As Lord Fitzroy Somerset he had served under the great Duke in the Peninsular War, where he was amongst the first to mount the breaches at the storming of Badajoz; and at Waterloo he lost an arm. Maréchal St. Arnaud was Commander-in-chief of the French Army. He was an able and brilliant soldier, and a man of heroic endurance. When he accepted the command he was sinking under a mortal disease, and his oft-recurring agonies were such that no man who had not extraordinary resolution and self-control could have borne up against. The commander of the Turkish army was the veteran, Omar Pasha.

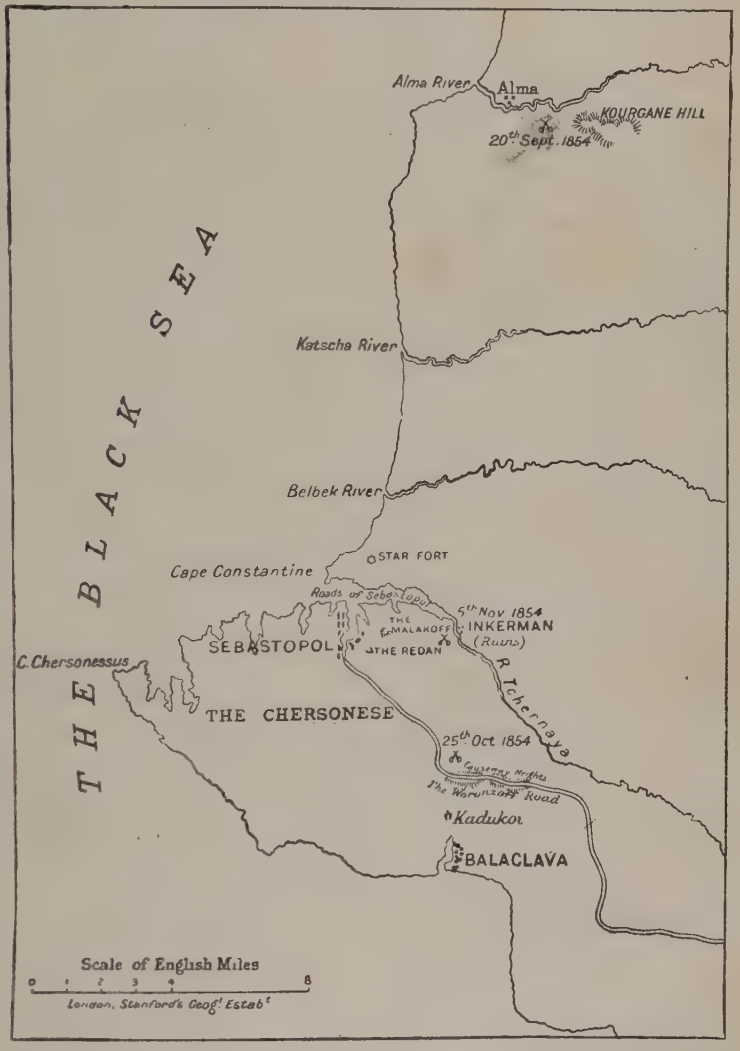
The allied forces proceeded to the East and assembled at Varna. Meanwhile things had gone badly for Russia; her advance had been checked by the stubborn defence of the Turkish strongholds, and she had been obliged to recross the Pruth; the Black Sea fleet had taken refuge at Sebastopol without having fought a battle, and the Baltic fleet had been chased by Sir Charles Napier into Cronstadt. The Russian invasion of the Danubian Principalities had proved a failure; Turkish territory was free from invaders; the demands of the Vienna Note were secured, and it was contended that the war might have ended then and there.

But the war fever was then at its height, and English Ministers feeling that there could be no lasting peace in Europe, and no safety from the ambition of Russia, so long as Sebastopol protected a Russian fleet in the Black Sea, the invasion of the Crimea was determined upon.

After three idle and wasted months at Varna, where the troops suffered terribly from cholera, the allied armies, 58,000 strong, landed unopposed in Kalamita Bay on the south-western shore of the Crimea, on the 17th of September, 1854. Three days later, marching southwards, they encountered the Russian army, 40,000 strong, under the command of Prince Menschikoff, who was strongly entrenched on a line of hill rising

abruptly on the opposite side of the little river Alma. The Allies crossed the stream under a deadly fire of Russian artillery. "With such men as you," said St. Arnaud, addressing his generals of division, Canrobert and Prince Napoleon, "I have no orders to give; I have but to point to the enemy."

Up the steep slopes of the heights of Alma the Allies advanced amid a searching rain of musketry, and despite the blundering of the generals, and the lack of clear instructions, they went at it pell-mell, and fought with such splendid valour that the Great Redoubt, which formed the key of the Russian position, was stormed and carried by assault. The Russians for a time fought stubbornly, but were powerless to resist the terrible onslaught. The well-directed fire of the English cut "lanes" through the masses of the enemy, and the deadly bayonet was plied at close quarters. The Russians, in dismay, wavered, broke, and fled, and the victory of the Allies was complete—the first great battle since Waterloo. But 3,000 of our gallant men, upon whom the brunt of the "scramble" had fallen most heavily, lay dead or dying on the field!



The victory should, and probably would, have been followed up immediately, and an attack made upon Sebastopol before the demoralised Russians could pull themselves together. Raglan was willing, but St. Arnaud objected on the double ground that he did not wish to press the retreat, and that his troops were fatigued. Neither was the real reason—the poor fellow was dying, and in a few days passed away in terrible agony And with him passed also the great chance that Sebastopol might have been carried by a *coup de main* and so have brought the war to an end.

When the daring but wise plan of a sudden attack on the unprotected north side of Sebastopol was abandoned, the famous march of the Allies round Sebastopol ensued, the object of which was to obtain good bases for future operations, the English making for the narrow harbour of Balaclava, the French under Canrobert, the successor to St. Arnaud, occupying the more roomy Kasach Bay.

On the 23rd of September, three days after the battle of the Alma, General Todleben, who commanded the defences of Sebastopol, sunk seven war vessels at the mouth of the harbour, and so made a simultaneous attack from sea and land impossible.

When the Allies sat down before Sebastopol to make their preparations for a formal siege, Menschikoff threw his battalions once more into the fortress and prepared to defend it to the last. So commenced that great siege which was to last for eleven weary months, (October 1854 to September 1855) and to cost over 100,000 lives!

It may be observed here that a notable feature of the invasion of the Crimea was the presence of war correspondents with the army. It was a great innovation; never before had the vivid descriptions of the actual day-by-day movements of an army been written down and sent home. The pioneer of this novel form of literature was Mr. W. H. Russell ("Billy Russell" as his friends called him,) and his brilliant descriptions of battles, of the conduct of men in the field, of the attitude of the commanders, were read with an excitement never before paralleled in the history of any previous war.

On the 25th of October, Menschikoff descended on Balaclava with a tremendous force, and a great battle was fought, or, as someone sarcastically said, "a battle consisting of five several combats not effectively brought into one by any prevailing design."

At the Battle of Balaclava the enemy commenced operations by capturing four redoubts held by the Turks. Then the Russian cavalry advanced, supported by artillery in very great strength. The Russian horse, numbering some 3,000, advanced towards the British heavy cavalry under Brigadier-General Scarlett. Scarlett at once turned about and charged; "the dark grey Russian column swept down in multitudinous superiority of numbers on the red clad squadrons. There was a clash and fusion as of wave meeting wave, all those engaged being resolved into a crowd of individual horsemen whose swords rose and fell and glanced. Then, almost in a moment, the whole Russian mass gave way and fled beyond the hill, vanishing behind the slope five minutes after they had first swept over it." As the enemy withdrew, Lord Raglan directed the light cavalry Brigade, supported by the 4th Division under Lieutenant-General Sir George Cathcart, to move forward and take advantage of any opportunity to regain the heights, and, not having been able to accomplish this immediately, and it appearing that an attempt was making to remove the captured guns, the Earl of Lucan was desired to advance rapidly, follow the enemy in their retreat, and try to prevent them from effecting their object. The order placed in the hands of Lord Lucan by Captain Nolan ran thus:—

"Lord Raglan wishes the cavalry to advance rapidly to the front, follow the enemy, and try to prevent the enemy carrying away the guns. Troop of Horse Artillery may accompany. French cavalry is on your left. Immediate. R. Airey."

In the meantime the Russians had been able to re-form on their own ground with artillery in front and upon their flanks. Owing to some misconception of the instructions to advance, the Lieutenant-General considered that he was bound to attack at all hazards. In the altered circumstances the order was that of a madman—and to carry it into

BALACLAVA.

execution was to court certain death to the six hundred and seventy men who formed the Brigade. Every man knew that "someone had blundered," but not a man shrunk from what he considered to be his duty of obedience. The fatal order to move forward was given to Major General the Earl of Cardigan, and then ensued that wonderful display of valour known as the "Charge of the Light Brigade" which will never be forgotten while the world stands. We give an account of it in the words of an eye-witness, the famous *Times* correspondent :—

"The whole brigade scarcely made one effective regiment, according to the numbers of continental armies; and yet it was more than we could spare. As they passed towards the front, the Russians opened on them from the guns in the redoubt on the right, with volleys of musketry and rifles. They swept proudly past, glittering in the morning sun in all the pride and splendour of war. We could scarcely believe the evidence of our senses! Surely that handful of men are not going to charge an army in position? Alas! it was but too true; their desperate valour knew no bounds, and far indeed was it removed from its so-called better part—discretion. They advanced in two lines, quickening their pace as they closed towards the enemy. A more fearful spectacle was never witnessed than by those who, without the power to aid, beheld their heroic countrymen rushing to the arms of death. At the distance of 1,200 yards the whole line of the enemy belched forth, from thirty iron mouths, a flood of smoke and flame, through which hissed the deadly balls. Their flight was marked by instant gaps in our ranks, by dead men and horses, by steeds flying wounded or riderless across the plain. The first line is broken, it is joined by the second; they never halt or check their speed an instant; with diminished ranks, thinned by those thirty guns, which the Russians had laid with the most deadly accuracy, with a halo of flashing steel above their heads and with a cheer which was many a noble fellow's death-cry, they flew into the smoke of the batteries; but ere they were lost from view the plain was strewn with their bodies, and with the carcases of horses. They were exposed to an oblique fire from the batteries on the hills on both sides, as well as to a direct fire of musketry. Through the clouds of smoke we could see their sabres flashing as they rode up to the guns and dashed between them, cutting down the gunners as they stood. We saw them riding through the guns, as I have said; to our delight we saw them returning, after breaking through a column of Russian infantry, and scattering them like chaff, when the flank fire of the battery on the hill swept them down, scattered and broken as they were. Wounded men and dismounted troopers flying towards us told the sad tale; demi-gods could not have done what we had failed to do. At the very moment when they were about to retreat, an enormous mass of Lancers was hurled on their flank. Colonel Shewell, of the 8th Hussars, saw the danger, and rode his few men straight at them, cutting his way through with fearful loss. The other regiments turned and engaged in a desperate encounter. With courage too great almost for credence, they were breaking their way through the columns which enveloped them, when there took place an act of atrocity without parallel in the modern warfare of civilised nations. The Russian gunners, when the storm of cavalry passed, returned to their guns. They saw their own cavalry mingled with the troopers who had just ridden over them, and, to the eternal disgrace of the Russian name, the miscreants poured a murderous volley of grape and canister on the mass of struggling men and horses, mingling friend and foe in one common ruin. It was as much as our Heavy Cavalry Brigade could do to cover the retreat of the miserable remnants of that band of heroes as they returned to the place they had so lately quitted in all the pride of life. At 11-35 not a British soldier, except

the dead and dying, was left in front of those bloody Muscovite guns." Six hundred and seventy went forth on that fearful ride "into the jaws of death;" only one hundred and ninety-eight returned.

"It is magnificent, but it is not war," was the comment of the French General, Bosquet, on the horrible sacrifice.

A few days later the Russians concentrated an overwhelming force of 50,000 men, to attack the scanty British force on the plateau of Inkermann. It was in the early morning of the 5th of November that, under cover of a thick fog and in a drizzling rain, the Russians surprised the English camp. The Battle of Inkermann, it has been said, was a "soldier's battle," fruitful in heroic deeds and stupid blunders. An eye witness has recorded how in the mist there raged a dreadful hand-to-hand fight against an army ten times as strong as our own, and how on those misty heights, officers lost their men and men lost their officers, and when ammunition failed, the English fought with bayonets, and when these broke or bent, with stones, and when these failed, with clenched fists. There was no generalship—there could be none—but British steadiness and bull-dog courage gained the day. Column after column of Russians was hurled at our little force, but without avail, and at last the result was to be seen in the fearful mass of the Russian dead. They recoiled and retreated, thoroughly vanquished, and little thinking that their 40,000 men had been repulsed by 9,000 English, aided, towards the end of the fight, by 7,000 French. The Battle of Inkermann was the severest of the campaign, the British loss in killed and wounded being 2,612, of whom 145 were officers. The French loss was 1,726. The Russians were believed to have lost 12,000, but throughout the war the losses of the enemy could not be precisely ascertained.

Owing to the rapid approach of winter it was now patent to all that the siege must be raised or that the Allies must enter on a winter campaign. The latter was the alternative adopted.

On the 14th of November, a terrific storm wrecked twenty-one vessels in Balaclava Bay, bearing for our men ammunition and warm clothing, and other necessaries for the winter, which settled in with unusual severity. Through unpardonable oversight, the land transport broke down altogether, although it was but ten miles from Balaclava to the front. Cholera, the germs of which had been brought from Varna, raged in our lines, and those who escaped it fell victims to scurvy, dysentery, or fever. With only tents for shelter and rags for clothing, with insufficient food, and no medical comforts, the poor fellows starved, and died, and rotted. "Between the beginning of November and the end of February, 8,898 British troops perished in hospital. On the last of these dates 13,608 men were still in hospital." *

The mismanagement of affairs in the Crimea, particularly as regarded the Commissariat Department, kindled a feeling of distress and indignation in this country such as had never been known before. Stores of every kind, equal to five times the demand, had been sent out, and yet neither officer nor private could obtain the twentieth part of what was wanted. Time would fail to tell the story of the grievous calamities that befell our countrymen in this terrible winter. "The noblest army England ever sent from these shores," said the *Times*, "has been sacrificed to the grossest mismanagement. Incompetency, lethargy, aristocratic hauteur, official indifference, favour, routine, perverseness and stupidity reign, revel, and riot in the camp before Sebastopol, in the harbour of Balaclava, in the hospitals of Scutari, and how much nearer home we do not venture to say." Every day fresh tidings came of privation, sickness and death; of

* Walpole's History, Vol. V., p. 125.

unspeakable suffering from neglect; of medical stores decaying at Varna that were intended for Scutari; of tents standing in pools of water for want of implements to dig trenches; of consignments of boots, all for the left foot, and so forth. And thus, as a writer in the *Times* observed, "The vast prestige of that naval and military organisation which we have been nursing so sedulously for these forty years, at the cost of fifteen millions a year, has gone with a touch at the moment of trial!"

FLORENCE NIGHTINGALE IN THE HOSPITAL AT SCUTARI.

One good came out of the evil, not limited to the Crimea but destined to affect every battle field for all future time, namely, the landing in Scutari of Miss Florence Nightingale and the noble band of women who accompanied her as nurses to the sick and wounded. This was the inauguration of a great philanthropic movement, which has since done so much to mitigate the horrors of wars.

The righteous indignation of the people of England was intense, and it vented itself against the Premier, Lord Aberdeen, and the Minister of War, the Duke of Newcastle.

Mr. Roebuck gave notice of a motion for the appointment of a Committee to inquire into the mismangement of the war, and the famous Coalition Ministry was beaten by 305 votes to 148. Lord Palmerston became Prime Minister, and Lord Panmure, Secretary of State for War.

While the Committee of Inquiry was busy trying to find out upon which department of the Service the blame could be fixed for past failures, active steps were being taken in other directions to redeem that failure. A railway was laid between Balaclava and the camp, a submarine telegraph from Bulgaria flashed its hourly communications to England and France; every Englishman vied with his neighbour in sending out all kinds of articles that could promote the comfort of the soldiers, and a staff of agents to dispense them liberally, and by these and other means the terrible suffering was relieved.

A. Yoon.

BATTLE OF MALAKOFF.

Meanwhile the siege went on at intervals, and the Russians extended and strengthened their works under the great engineer Todleben, so that the fortress increased rather than diminished. France sent out reinforcements, and the English Government increased its force to 40,000.

In March, 1855, Czar Nicholas died, worn out with distress, anxiety and fatigue, and peace negociations were opened at a Conference at Vienna, to which his son and successor, Alexander II. sent a representative "in the spirit of concord." But the Conference came to nothing. The King of Sardinia (Victor Emanuel), for political reasons, and subject to the guarantee of his territories, joined the Allies and sent out to the Crimea a fine army of 15,000 men.

In April the bombardment of Sebastopol was resumed, but without much result. Then the war began to lose its character of siege and changed into a battle, or an artillery duel of many months duration between the two armies, each holding a strongly entrenched position. "The Allies had 500 or 600 guns in operation and sometimes they launched

twelve thousand shells and round shot against the enemy in twenty-four hours." Gradually the trenches of the Allies grew closer to the doomed city, until at one point the men were within speaking distance.

On June 18th a combined attack was made on the fort Malakoff facing the French position, and the Redan facing the English position. It was the anniversary of Waterloo, and the Allies hoped to fight victoriously side by side against their common foe on the commemoration day. But they were doomed to disappointment; the assault failed and the Allies were repulsed with heavy loss.

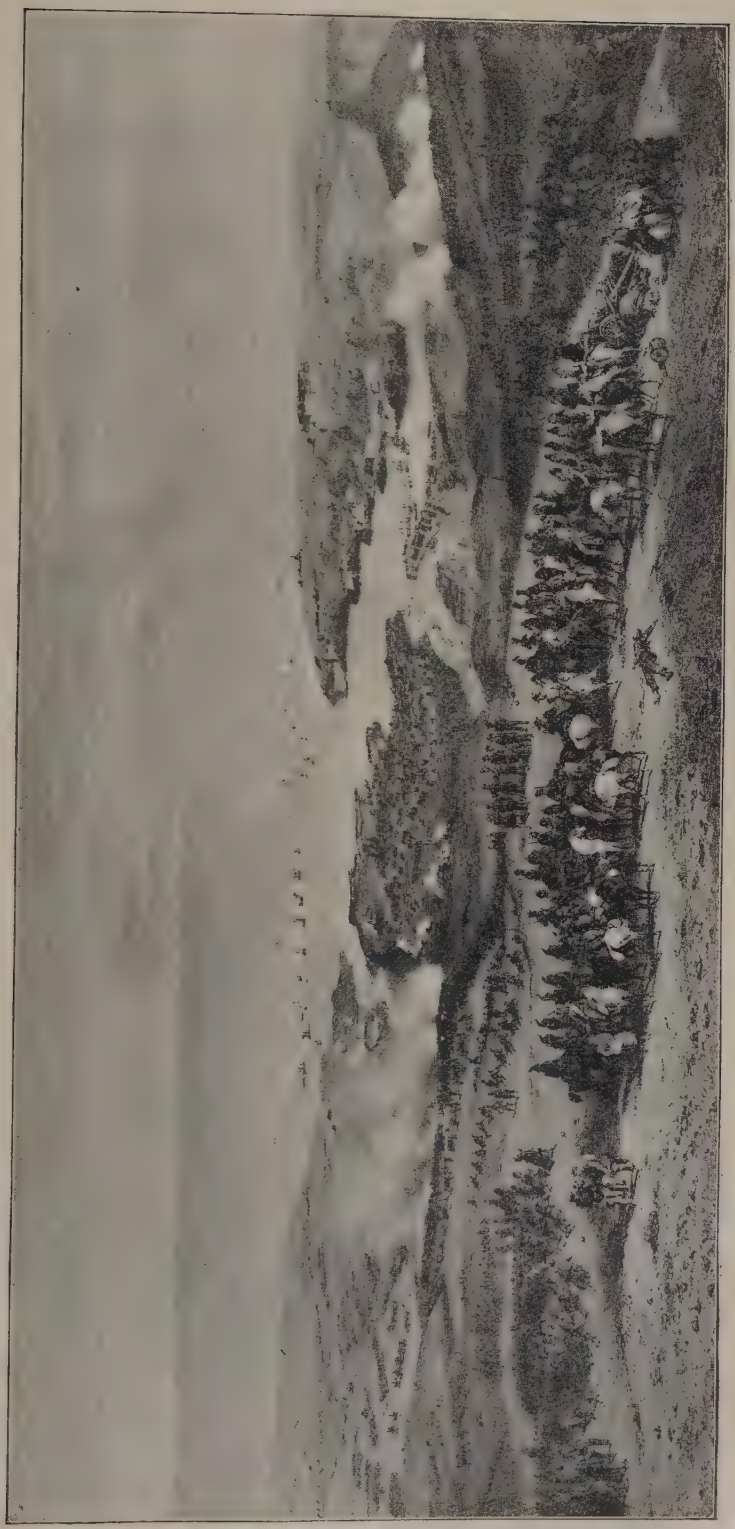
Several changes in the *personnel* of the war took place about this time. Marshall Pelissier was appointed Commander of the French forces in succession to General Canrobert; on June 29th, Lord Raglan died, worn out in a task for which, from mere age, he was unfitted, and harassed almost to death by censures which should have been reserved for others. He was succeeded by General Simpson. About the same time Prince Gortschakoff succeeded Menschikoff in the command of the Russian army.

On the 16th of August a desperate attempt was made by the Russians, under General Liprandi, to raise the siege. He crossed the river Tchernaya, and made a fierce attack on the position occupied by the French and Sardinians. Although Liprandi brought with him 6,000 cavalry and 20 batteries and concentrated his force with great skill, the Sardinians fought with such bravery that the Russians were repulsed with ruinous loss.

The close of the war was now almost in sight. On the 5th, 6th, and 7th of September a terrific and incessant fire was kept up by the Allies on the Russian works and town of Sebastopol. Many of the enemy's guns were dismounted; their batteries were knocked to pieces; a ship of war in the harbour took fire; and the buildings of the town were shattered. It was a withering attack, and the Russian loss was something like 2,500 men daily.

On the 8th of September, the Malakoff redoubt—the key of the defences—and the Redan, another formidable fortress, were to be the scene of the final trial of strength. It was arranged that the French, with a force of 30,000 men, should attack the Malakoff, and as soon as they had got possession, they should hoist the tricolour on the fort, and this was to be the signal for the British attack on the Redan. Precisely at noon—the exact time fixed upon—a gallant rush was made, and for many hours a savage contest raged around and on the Malakoff.

"At the Malakoff Fort, the slopes on the inside being very high, the first arrivals stopped for a moment in order to form, then mounted on the parapet, and leaped into the work. The contest, which had commenced by musket shots, was continued with the bayonet, butt-ends, and stones. The Russian artillerymen made use of their rammers as weapons; but they were everywhere killed, taken prisoners, or driven off, and in a quarter of an hour, the French flag was floating on the conquered redoubt. This was the signal agreed upon for the advance of the English to the Redan." Then under a withering fire, the British storming force with quite inadequate covering and ladder parties, rushed forward to the out-works of the Redan. In crossing the space of 200 yards that intervened between their trenches and the fortress, they were swept by a terrific fire under which they fell "like swathes of corn before the reaper." On arriving at the crest of the ditch the ladders were placed, and the men immediately stormed the parapet of the Redan. For an hour the fierce and bloody contest was maintained. But through imbecile weakness in sending a mere handful of men to such an attack, and



THE SIEGE OF SEBASTOPOL.

inexcusable neglect to hurry on the requisite supports, it was impossible for our gallant and heroic men to hold on; they were deserted in their hour of splendid peril, and were obliged to retreat and seek refuge in the trenches.

The French general had sent a force of 30,000 men for the assault on the Malakoff; for the capture of the Redan—a work far greater than the Malakoff—the English general made the fatal mistake of sending only 3,000 men, with the consequence that the noble fellows, who had taken possession of the Redan, were driven out of it by the ever-increasing body of the enemy, who had abandoned the Malakoff. It was a terrible defeat; 2,447 men were killed and wounded, and "we sacrificed more men in failing to carry the Redan than Wellington lost when he captured Badajoz."

The capture of the Malakoff settled the fate of the war. Sebastopol was no longer tenable; further resistance was vain, and early in the morning of the 9th of September, when the Allies were making ready for a final attack, the Russians silently and skilfully evacuated the town without their knowledge, retreated across the harbour by a bridge of boats to the forts on the northern side, after blowing up their forts on the southern side and sinking their fleet. The docks were soon afterwards destroyed by the Allies with gunpowder, and the great Russian fortress was reduced to absolute ruin. "Sebastopol had fallen; not into the hands of the Allies, it had been erased from the face of the earth."

So ended the great siege of three hundred and forty-nine days' duration, and with it the Crimean War. It came to an end satisfactorily for Napoleon III., who, covering himself with the victory that glorified the dynasty, and having made the war serve his purpose, immediately withdrew his troops from the Crimea. It ended unsatisfactorily for us on our ignominious defeat at the Redan.

Although the naval operations of the war presented nothing of striking importance, a brief reference should be made to them.

An English fleet went to the Baltic in 1854 under Admiral Sir Charles Napier, and Bomarsund, a strong fortress on one of the Aland Islands, which are opposite the Gulf of Finland, in Russian waters, was bombarded, and taken by the allied French and English fleets, which then left the Baltic for the winter.

In that same year various naval engagements took place in the Black Sea. At the bombardment of Odessa, our fleet did some damage to the forts, and later in the year, in conjunction with the French fleet, bombarded the forts defending the harbour of Sebastopol. Unfortunately the allied fleets suffered severely from shell firing, while little damage was done to the Russians.

In the following year, when Admiral Dundas had succeeded Napier in command of the Baltic fleet, Sweaborg, a fortress of enormous strength in the Gulf of Finland—called the "Gibraltar of the North"—was utterly destroyed without loss to our men.

In that same year (1855) there was an expedition into the Sea of Azov, when Kertch, Yenikale, and other places were captured, and large quantities of Russian stores destroyed. In the White Sea, Archangel was blockaded, and some damage done on the coast. "The general result of naval operations was to show the impossibility of wooden and unarmoured ships successfully encountering the heavy artillery of modern days mounted upon earth-works or stone batteries."

During the War—our last European War in the nineteenth century—we spent £50,000,000 sterling; 24,000 men perished, and many more than that number

came home broken in health, or mutilated by wounds. We secured for a time the safety of the Ottoman Government—the rottenest in the world—and we crippled, for a time, the resources of Russia. "We preserved for one or two million Turks the privilege of oppressing and plundering eight million Christians." But we did not secure the permanence even of these lamentable successes. In fifteen or twenty years "the Eastern question" became again as threatening as it had ever been before; it was scotched, not killed, at enormous cost to ourselves and Europe; its settlement had only been postponed. Says Mr. Spencer Walpole "the solitary result of the Crimean War was to set back the clock for some fourteen years."

We had upheld the miserable Turkish despotism, we had pandered to the selfishness of France; we received no adequate recompense for our outlay of life and money, and the war failed to accomplish either of the two ends for which it had been undertaken—the reform of Turkey, or the permanent crippling of Russia.

An unsatisfactory peace ended an unfortunate war. The Congress of Paris met on February 26th, 1856, and a treaty of Peace was signed by the Plenipotentiaries of the Great Powers on March 30th.

"Its conditions were (1) the Black Sea was neutralised; all trading ships were admitted, but no ships of war, even of the Powers holding its coasts; (2) Sebastopol was not to be kept up; (3) Turkey was admitted to the public law of Europe; (4) the Sultan promised more freedom to his Christian subjects; (5) the Danube navigation was opened; (6) all conquests were restored; (7) England allowed a neutral flag to cover enemy's goods save contraband of war; (8) in return, blockades were to be recognised only when effective; (9) privateering was abolished by all the European Powers."

"The Peace," said Prince Albert in a letter to Stockmar, "is not such as we could have wished, still infinitely to be preferred to the prosecution of the war, with the present complication of general policy." And that was, in truth, the verdict of the country.

THE HOSPITAL AND CEMETERY AT SCUTARI. CONSTANTINOPLE IN THE DISTANCE.

CHAPTER XXXVI.

THE INDIAN MUTINY.

"The causes and motives of seditions are, innovation in religion, taxes, alteration of laws and customs, breaking of privileges, general oppression, advancement of unworthy persons, strangers, dearths, disbanded soldiers, factions grown desperate; and whatsoever in offending people, joineth and knitteth them in a common cause."—*Bacon, Essays.*

THE causes leading to the Great Mutiny have been discussed by many historians, who have taken a variety of views, which will, probably, never be brought into exact agreement. There are, however, certain facts which are generally acknowledged to have been mainly instrumental in fostering the discontent which ended in the wide-spread rebellion.

For some years previously, as we have said elsewhere,* there had been revolt upon revolt against the British rule, and active measures had been taken to suppress them and to bring the rebellious States under proper government. In 1849, for example, after the great victory of Goojerat, the whole Sikh army laid down its arms, the Punjab was annexed and its settlement placed in the hands of that able administrator, Sir John Lawrence. The Earl of Dalhousie was at that time Governor General, and the policy of his administration was to extend the limits of British territory and bring the bad government of the predatory princes to an end by placing them under British rule. There was a Hindu custom known as "adoption," by which a ruler without issue was at liberty to adopt anyone he chose to succeed him in all the rights of sovereignty as though the person chosen were direct heir. Believing this to be a "solemn deceit," Lord Dalhousie laid down his famous "doctrine of lapse," which meant that when the bodily heirs of a ruler had died out, the State should be absorbed into British India. In this way he seized the Mahratta State of Satara in 1848; the Principality of Nagpore in 1853—which became the nucleus of the Central Provinces—and in the same year the Mahratta State of Jhansi. In 1853, also, Bajee Rao, the Peishwa who in 1818 had been deprived of his dominions although allowed to retain his title, died, and his adopted son Dhundu Punt, better known as Nana Sahib, claimed the title. This Lord Dalhousie refused, but allowed him a pension instead.

After this came the absorption of the Kingdom of Oude—a district as large as Belgium and Holland. For fifty years we had upheld the throne of Oude under treaty obligations. But the country was misgoverned by a vicious, evil-minded ruler; the people were cruelly oppressed and tortured; the extortionate taxes were collected by armed men, and it has been affirmed that within two years 11,000 persons had been murdered; the rich land was becoming a wilderness, and therefore, despite treaty obligations, in order to save the people from the gross oppression of the native rulers, Lord Dalhousie in 1856, proclaimed that the government of the province was now to be assumed by the British. "The time has come," he said, "when the British Government

* See page 358.

can no longer tolerate in Oude those evils and abuses, while its position under the Treaty serves indirectly to sustain or continue to the sovereign that protection which alone upholds the power whereby such evils are inflicted. Fifty years of sad experience have proved that the Treaty of 1801 has wholly failed to secure the happiness and prosperity of Oude; and have conclusively shown that no effectual security can be had for the release of the people of that country from the grievous oppression they have long endured, unless the exclusive administration of the territories shall be permanently transferred to the British Government."

A few weeks later Lord Dalhousie left Calcutta for England, "faint and weak with work and suffering," after thirteen years' arduous labours in the service of the Crown. During that period he had covered India with railways, canals, roads and telegraphs; he had fostered the education of the natives, reformed the Civil Service, inaugurated a cheap postal system, and revolutionised customs, habits and opinions. His last act as Governor-General—the annexation of Oude—practically undid all the good that he had done, and gave the signal for that mutinous outbreak which "shook our hold in India, and, but for miracles of energy and valour, would have assuredly torn it from our grasp."

As State after State had become absorbed into the dominion of the conquerors, the fears of the people were aroused. They saw the old order of things changing and every step taken "for their good," they regarded with suspicion. Colonel Meadows Taylor in his "History of India" says:—"The material progress of India was unintelligible to the natives in general. A few intelligent and educated persons might understand the use and scope of railways, telegraphs, steam-vessels, and recognise in them the direction of a great Government for the benefit of the people; but the ancient listless conservatism of the population at large was disturbed by them. 'The English,' it was said, 'never did such things before, why had they done so now? These are but new devices for the domination of their will and are aimed at the destruction of our national faith, caste, and customs. What was it all to come to? Was India to be like England? The earlier Company's servants were simple but wise men, and we respected them; we understood them and they us, but the present men are not like them. We do not know them nor they us!'"

There were many other causes at work to stir up the spirit of fear and discontent which would culminate in revolt. The idea had gone widely abroad that it was the intention of the British to overthrow the native religions; to enforce Christianity; to abolish caste—a monstrous superstition, it is true, but one which was ingrained in the heart's core of the people;—and to make fresh innovations until all their old land-marks should be obliterated, and they should cease to have any nationality, customs, or laws of their own. A desire to throw off the galling yoke and to stand up for the heritage of their fathers was spreading everywhere and events were occurring to strengthen the growth of these feelings. One of their own wise men had prophesied that in a hundred years from the battle of Plassey the rule of the British should come to an end, and this prophesy was recited from the almanack in every Indian village. The one hundredth anniversary of Plassey was celebrated on the 23rd of June, 1857, and hundreds of thousands of the natives believed that the year of their redemption drew nigh.

The internal policy of Lord Dalhousie in establishing railways, telegraphs, and education, had opened the eyes of the people of India to inquire into the position of affairs in British politics generally, and with distorted vision they had observed the British arms failing in the Crimea and British policy vehemently attacked; they knew the story of the Afghan disaster of 1841, and of the narrow escape from defeat in the more recent Sikh

campaign; they were aware of the collapse of the British policy in Persia; they knew that England was engaged in a war with China, and they thought that the time had come to cast off their hateful yoke.

In the native army there had been for some years a marked deterioration, especially in the army of Bengal. It was largely by the assistance of these Sepoys, or native soldiers, that India had been won, and that Britain maintained her authority in India. They numbered, at the time the Mutiny commenced, some 230,000, as against 45,000 Europeans. Among these Sepoys the spirit of disaffection, prevalent, as we have said, among the people generally, had spread; the old loyalty which at one time had made them a proverb for fidelity was gone; they were not so respectful to their officers, so zealous in service or so faithful in the discharge of their duties as they had been. Moreover, they had special grievances of their own. A very large proportion of the Sepoys of Bengal were born subjects of the King of Oude, and they regarded the annexation of his kingdom as simple robbery, and bitterly resented it. Many of the perquisites and privileges of the Sepoys generally had been interfered with, and they were in doubt where these curtailments would end. At one time they received extra pay when they marched to the conquest of a province beyond the Sutlej, but this was now abolished; once the Sepoy enlisted for service in India only, but by the General Service Order of 1856 he could not now enlist without taking an oath to cross the sea if called upon to do so. This was a double grievance, first, because it changed the condition of service, and next, because it touched a question of caste—it was only the low caste men who dared to cross "the black water." Then, again, it was a grievance to them that many regiments sent from India to the Crimea had not been replaced; that the proportion of British to native troops was abnormally low, and that the British officers spent only a small part of their time with their regiments. What appears, however, to have influenced them more than anything else, was the opening of their eyes to the fact that the British were not invincible, and that they had met with disastrous reverses in a series of wars. Briefly, therefore, the state of mind prevalent among the natives just before the Mutiny was, a suspicion that the Government would defile their caste and sweep away their religion; that province after province would be annexed, as Oude had been, until no native court should be left; and that the year foretold by their astrologers had come when British ascendancy should cease. Here was ample material for revolt, and inadvertently the Government itself gave the signal for the revolution. Hitherto the Sepoys had been armed with the old smooth bore musket, known popularly as "Brown Bess." In 1856 Enfield rifles were substituted, and were received with satisfaction by the natives as a great improvement upon the old weapon. In order to secure accuracy of aim, the cartridge of the new weapon could not be rammed home unless it had been previously greased, and in the Government factories animal fat was the lubricant employed. This became known, and the story ran everywhere among the troops that the grease used was cows' fat and hogs' lard. No Hindu can touch the fat of ox or cow without loss of caste—a thing to them worse than death itself—nor could a Moslem touch pigs' fat without moral defilement. At once the rumour was interpreted as an attempt of the English Government to carry out what the natives had so long feared, the overthrow of their native religions, by causing Hindus to offer indignity to the cow they venerated, and the Moslem to defile himself with the fat of the swine he abhorred. The mixture of the two objectionable fats was regarded as a planned attack on the two great faiths. From mouth to mouth the story flew, everywhere creating a panic of religious fear among the native troops lest they had been defiled even to the destruction of their

souls. At various places men met together to devise means for self-protection. At Barrackpore incendiary fires broke out; a restless, uneasy feeling, if not an abject and half-crazy fear, took possession of whole bodies of men. Major-General Hearsey, who was commanding the Presidency Division at Dumdum, near Calcutta, communicated to the Indian Government the state of affairs, and orders were at once issued that ungreased cartridges should be used, the men lubricating them with whatever substances they pleased, but it was too late to arrest the panic, and the wildest rumours were eagerly received and believed. When a glazed paper was used for ungreased cartridges, it was alleged that animal fat was used in the manufacture of the paper; it was rumoured that flour was served out mixed with the bones of the cow ground to powder; confidence in the Government was gone, and with it all the old feelings of loyalty, fidelity and soldierly honour, and in its place had grown up a mixture of hatred and fear of the British, whose designs were now regarded as unholy and destructive. At Barrackpore a Sepoy informed the officers of the 34th Native Infantry that he had become aware of a plot amongst the men of the four regiments at that station; that they were apprehensive of being forced to give up their caste and being made Christians, and that consequently they were determined to rise against their officers, and commence by either plundering, or burning the bungalows.

At Berhampore, to which place a detachment of the 34th Native Infantry had been sent, the tale of the glazed paper was carried to the 19th Native Infantry and when, on the 25th of February, 1857, they were ordered to parade and percussion caps were, according to the usual custom, about to be issued to them, the men refused to receive them, saying that there was some doubt as to how the cartridges were made. On the same night they broke into the place where their arms were piled, and taking possession of their muskets and ammunition carried them to their lines. The cavalry and artillery being called out to suppress this insubordination, the men laid down their arms and the regiment was afterwards disbanded. In the same month that the 19th Native Infantry mutinied, a mysterious signal was sent to the dwellers in the north-west provinces for bringing the conspiracy against the British Government into universal action. Small unleavened cakes, known as "chupatties," were passed with amazing rapidity and precision of system into every native village, and from hand to hand; everywhere they were received as a warning message that action was imminent and that preparation must be made. It was to the wide-spread population of the north and north-west provinces what the "fiery cross" was to the Highlanders, although the exact significance of the signal has never been fully known.

Early in May, a number of the 3rd Native Bengal Cavalry stationed at Meerut, a great cantonment near Delhi, refused to bite the cartridges served out to them, although assured on the highest official authority that neither the cartridges nor the paper in which they were wrapped contained any offensive material. They were tried by Court Martial, and eighty of them were sentenced to ten years' imprisonment with hard labour, and five to a similar punishment for six years. They were paraded before the other native regiments, chained, and marched off to jail, where they were placed under a guard of Sepoys. On the next day (Sunday), during church hours, their companions forced the gates of the jail, and released them, and then Meerut was in open mutiny. The native troops flew to arms, fired upon their officers, shot many Europeans, drove them from their barracks, and marched forth in battle array to Delhi, thirty-eight miles distant. There dwelt Bahadur Shah, the last representative of the great Mogul, who espoused their cause. Him they proclaimed "Emperor of India," and the

native troops in the city and cantonments cast in their lot with the mutineers. "They had found in one moment, a leader, a flag, and a cause, and the mutiny was transfigured into a revolutionary war." They had entered the city without opposition and instantly began to attack every European they met. It was reported that "they were soon joined there by mutineers from all quarters. Many of the Europeans fled for protection to, or were taken by force and butchered in the presence, or with the knowledge of, the aged king and his bloodthirsty sons. Children were tossed on the points of bayonets before their

DELHI.

mothers' eyes; ladies were dragged naked through the streets and exposed to the most shocking indignities at the Bazaar. In a few days the Sepoys had the entire city at their mercy, the magazine having been blown up to save it from falling into their hands. The British besieging force took up their quarters about two miles north of Delhi, with the old cantonment in front, a canal in their rear, and the river Jumna on their left."

Such was the news—grossly exaggerated be it said with regard to the treatment of the women—which burst with awful suddenness upon England, and sent such a thrill of horror through the heart of the nation as has happily rarely been paralleled.

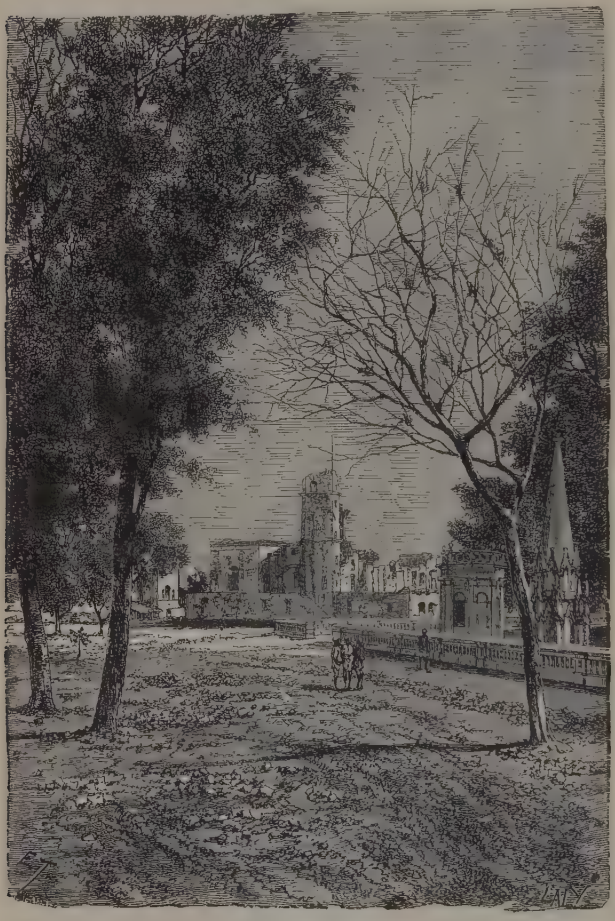
In Bengal the news of the siege of Delhi flew with marvellous rapidity, and was followed by mutinies in almost every place where native regiments were stationed. In Calcutta it produced a panic indescribable, and Lord Canning, the Governor-General, was appealed to by the inhabitants, who were wild with terror, to take the most savage steps to crush the outbreak. At Garden Reach, on the Hooghly, only a few miles from Calcutta, lived the deposed King of Oude; he, it was thought, was nursing the wrong that had been done him by annexing his kingdom, and was gathering round him a band of fanatics and murderers, who were ready to go forth and avenge themselves on the neighbouring city. The people of Calcutta cried in their terror for his immediate seizure. But while the people were frenzied with fear, Canning never for a moment lost his head. On the contrary, every faculty of his well-disciplined mind was calm and cool, and the clamour of the whole world could not move him to one hasty, indiscreet or even angry action. His answer to the demands of the people shrieking for revenge was to invite the deposed King of Oude and his vizier to take up their residence in his own house. This brought upon him the most violent denunciations; the people nicknamed him "Clemency Canning," and demanded his immediate recall.

Delhi having proclaimed itself the head-quarters of the rebellion, it seemed to Lord Canning that Delhi was the place where the first blow should be struck. He intercepted the British troops on their way to take part in the threatened, but less dangerous, Chinese War; the Persian War was at an end, and he was able to secure the brilliant services of those splendid warriors, Outram and Havelock. Before these could arrive, however, it was certain that some strong action must be taken at once; the whole country was aflame with mutiny; 50,000 native soldiers had raised the standard of rebellion. His hopes lay in the Punjab, at that time under the administration of Sir John (afterwards Lord) Lawrence. Information of the outbreak at Meerut was at once telegraphed to Lahore, the capital, but Sir John Lawrence was absent in the Upper Punjab, having left full powers in the hands of Mr. Robert Montgomery, the judicial Commissioner. At Meean Meer, a few miles from Lahore, there were 4,000 Sepoy troops stationed, and only 1,300 Europeans, and upon Mr. Montgomery devolved the solution of the critical question whether he should assume that these Sepoys were associated in the rebellious movement or whether they were loyal to the Government. The decision was of the utmost importance, as the Punjab was the key to the operations that must soon be commenced. That night there was revelry in Lahore, and in the midst of the feasting and dancing Mr. Montgomery called together a council of the civil and military authorities and a decision was arrived at. At daybreak on the following morning a parade was ordered at Meean Meer; twelve guns loaded with grape were placed in position on the parade ground, and the troops were formed in lines facing them. "A command was given to the Sepoys to pile arms. They had immediate death before them if they disobeyed. They stood literally at the cannon's mouth. They piled their arms, which were borne away at once in carts by European soldiers, and all chances of a rebellious movement were over in that province, and the Punjab was saved. Something of the same kind was done at Mooltan, in the Lower Punjab, later on; and the province, thus assured to English civil and military authority, became a basis for some of the most important operations by which the mutiny was crushed and the sceptre of India restored to the Queen."*

So ended successfully one of the most critical moments of the Mutiny.

* "History of Our Own Times," by Justin McCarthy, M.P.

In the opinion of Sir John Lawrence, Delhi was the key-stone of the insurrection, and "from the Punjab arsenals the siege-trains were equipped; from the Punjab districts vast amounts of carriage were gathered and despatched systematically with their loads to Delhi; from the Punjab treasuries the sinews of war were furnished. Men were raised by tens of thousands to replace the Sepoys—raised, indeed, in such numbers that—as constantly comes out in Lawrence's correspondence—the dread was for a long time never absent from his mind less this might be overdone, and new danger might arise from the Punjabis becoming conscious of their strength.*



RUINS OF THE RESIDENCY, LUCKNOW.

The Commander-in-Chief of the forces in India was at that time General Anson, of whom it was unkindly said that he was "an amateur soldier enjoying a long Indian holiday." He advanced with a slender British force towards Delhi, but died from cholera almost at the commencement of the march. The siege of Delhi, to which we shall refer more particularly later on, was long and difficult, lasting from June 8th to September 20th.

Meanwhile the mutiny was breaking out at fresh points almost everywhere in the northern and north-western regions, and on the 30th of May it made itself manifest at Lucknow, amongst the lines of the 71st Native Infantry, and soon became general. Sir Henry Lawrence, just before the commencement of the Mutiny had been made Governor of Oude—a province seething with sedition—and Lucknow itself, with its 700,000 inhabitants, was a hot-bed of treason. On Henry Lawrence devolved duties scarcely less onerous than those which were occupying the attention of his illustrious brother, John, in the Punjab. The Sepoys commenced operations by burning down some of the buildings and firing into the mess room of the officers of the 71st, some of whom were shot dead, and it was not until a part of the 32nd had charged the rebels, and the artillery had opened upon them under the personal direction of Sir Henry Lawrence, that they gave way and quitted the cantonments.

* "Quarterly Review," April, 1883.

Overwhelmed by mutineers, Lawrence had to retreat, to fortify the Residency, and to await a siege. "The state of Lucknow now became threatening in the extreme; but Sir Henry Lawrence hoped by vigorous measures of repression to strike terror into the minds of the inhabitants, and prevent a general rising. Numbers of men convicted of tampering with the troops were hanged on a gallows erected in front of the Mutchee Bhawn, and two members of the royal family at Delhi, and a brother of the ex-King of Oude, were arrested and imprisoned there. The Residency itself was crowded with women and children, and every house and outhouse was occupied. Preparations for defence were continued, and thousands of Coolies employed at the batteries, stockades, and trenches, which were everywhere being constructed. The treasure and ammunition, of which fortunately there was a large supply, were buried, and as many guns as could be collected brought together. The Residency and Mutchee Bhawn presented most animated scenes. There were soldiers, Sepoys, prisoners in irons, men, women, and children, hundreds of servants, respectable natives in their carriages, Coolies carrying weights, heavy cannons, field-pieces, carts; elephants, camels, bullocks, horses, all moving about hither and thither, and continual bustle and noise was kept up from morning to night. There was scarcely a corner which was not in some way occupied and turned to account." *

On the 2nd of July, Sir Henry Lawrence, who had been up with the dawn, was lying on a sofa, after a great amount of work, not, as it has been well said, to rest, but to transact business in a recumbent position "His nephew and another officer were with him. Suddenly a great crash was heard, and the room was filled with smoke and dust. One of his companions was flung to the ground. A shell had burst. When there was silence the officer who had been flung down called out 'Sir Henry, are you hurt?' At first there was no answer Then a weak voice was heard to reply, in just the words that Browning has put into the mouth of the gallant French lad similarly questioned by the great Napoleon, 'I am killed,' was the answer that came faintly but firmly from Sir Henry Lawrence's lips. The shell had wounded him in the thigh so fearfully as to leave surgery no chance of doing anything for his relief. On the morning of July 4th he died calmly and in perfect submission to the will of Providence He had made all possible arrangements for his successor, and for the work to be done. He desired that on his tomb should be engraved merely the words 'Here lies Henry Lawrence, who tried to do his duty.' The epitaph was a simple, truthful, summing up of a simple, truthful career."†

In St. Paul's Cathedral is a national monument to his memory, "the noblest man that has lived and died for India"

While Delhi and Lucknow were in a state of siege there occurred at Cawnpore that awful tragedy which stands out as the most appalling in magnitude and baseness in the whole annals of crime. Cawnpore is forty miles south of Lucknow, and when the revolt began General Sir Hugh Wheeler, an officer seventy-five years of age, had under his command a garrison of 3,000 native troops and about 300 Europeans. At Bithoor, some twelve miles distant from Cawnpore, there was residing a Mahratta noble—a young man of thirty-six, named Nana Sahib—the adopted heir of Bajee Rao, Peishwa of Poonah whose claim to the heirship, as already explained, had been disallowed by Lord Dalhousie. To this man, nursing a grievance, and treacherous in every fibre of his being, Sir Hugh Wheeler, misunderstanding the friendly attitude he had assumed, turned in his hour of

* "Annals of Our Time." Joseph Irving. † Justin McCarthy.

need for assistance to check the revolt. Nana came with 300 men and two guns. The garrison immediately revolted, and Nana at once placed himself at the head of mutineers! General Wheeler entrenched himself in an old hospital-building with about 1,000 Europeans, of whom 280 were women and girls, and the same number of young children. Nana summoned General Wheeler at once to surrender the entrenchments, or he would immediately attack them and on the General's refusal the attack commenced. For nineteen days under an incessant fire these brave men maintained their defence. An appeal for assistance was made to Sir Henry Lawrence, but he could not spare a man; and doggedly the little garrison held out amidst sufferings of the most terrible kind. Let one example suffice. There was only one well of water for the whole population, and this well was the target for the Sepoy bullets. "At the best a single well would have furnished a pitiably insufficient supply for a thousand mouths during an Indian June; and that well was from the first the favourite target of the hostile artillerymen. Guns were trained on to the exact spot, so that the appearance of a man with a pitcher by day, or by night the creaking of the tackle, was the signal for a shower of grape. The framework of beam and brick which protected the drawers was soon shot away. The machinery went next, and the buckets were thenceforward hauled up hand over hand from a depth of more than sixty feet. The Hindoo water-carriers were slain early in the siege, and their place was supplied by English soldiers, who nominally were paid at the

SIR H. LAWRENCE. *Stuart, Photo.*

rate of half-a-sovereign for every pail, though the brave fellows knew that, when a few days had gone by, it would matter little in whose hands the silver might happen to lie. That water was purchased with blood and not with money. John Mackillop, of the Civil Service, veiling devotion under a jocose pretence of self-depreciation, told his friends that, though no fighting man, he was willing to make himself useful where he could, and accor ingly claimed to be appointed 'Captain of the Well.' His tenure of office was prolonged beyond his own expectation. It was not till a week had passed that he was laid dying on a bed in the hospital with a grape-shot in the groin. His last words expressed a desire that the lady to whom he had promised a drink should not be disappointed." Surely the heroism of Sir Philip Sidney was not greater than that of John Mackillop!

MEMORIAL WELL, CAWNPORE.

While the numbers of the besieged were thinning day by day, Nana Sahib was reinforced by a large body of the best fighting soldiers of Oude. At last they made a grand assault on the entrenchments, but every man in the garrison seemed endowed with superhuman strength, and they were repulsed. Then, as his failure was causing him to lose prestige among his followers, Nana Sahib proposed these terms to the besieged:—"All those who are in no way connected with the acts of Lord Dalhousie, and who are willing to lay down their arms, shall receive a safe passage to Allahabad." The proposal was assented to by General Wheeler, and for the two days following the frightened residents in the entrenchments enjoyed comparative quiet to prepare for the journey on the 26th. "On the 26th," wrote Lieutenant Delafosse (one of only four survivors of this treacherous scheme), "a committee of officers went to the river to see that the boats were ready and serviceable; and everything being reported ready, and carriages for the wounded having arrived, we gave over our guns, &c., and marched on the morning of the 27th of June, about seven o'clock. We got down to the river and into the boats without being molested in the least, but no sooner were we in the boats, and had laid down our muskets, and taken off our coats to work easier at the boats, than the cavalry gave the order to fire. Two guns that had been hidden were run out and

opened on us immediately, while Sepoys came from all directions and kept up a fire. The men jumped out of the boats, and, instead of trying to get the boats loose from their moorings, swam to the first boat they saw loose. Only three boats got safely over to the opposite side of the river, but were met there by two field-pieces, guarded by a number of cavalry and infantry. Before these boats had got a mile down the stream, half our small party were either killed or wounded, and two of our boats had been swamped. We had now only one boat, crowded with wounded, and having on board more than she could carry. The two guns followed us the whole of the day, the infantry firing on us the whole of that night." Those in the boats who were not killed by the fire of the Sepoys were seized and carried back to Cawnpore, where the men were all shot, and the women carried to a building which had been formerly used as an assembly room, and kept close prisoners. They were not kept long in suspense as to their fate. The Nana having learned on the 15th that the British troops had carried the bridge over the Pandoo Nuddee, and that nothing could stop the irresistible march of Havelock's column, issued, through the Begum, a frightful order to slay the entire company. His instructions were but too faithfully obeyed. The Begum approached the building in which the Europeans were confined, accompanied by five men, each armed with a sabre; two of them appeared to be Hindoo peasants; two were known to be butchers, Mahommedans; and one was dressed in the red uniform of the Maharajah's body-guard. The horrible work commenced by half-a-dozen Sepoys discharging their muskets at random through the windows upon the defenceless victims. The five men armed with sabres were then observed to enter the building quietly, and close the doors. What next took place no one was spared to relate. Shrieks and scuffling were heard at significant intervals, acquainting those outside that the hired executioners were earning their pay. The one in the red uniform was observed to come to the door twice, and obtain a new sabre in exchange for one handed out hacked and broken. The noise gradually lessened, and at nightfall the executioners could lock the doors and retire from the building, with the feeble moans of a few half-slaughtered women ringing in their ears. Three at least survived till the morning (the 16th), when the doors of the slaughter-house were once more opened, and the naked bodies and dismembered limbs dragged ignominiously across the compound to a dry well situated behind some trees which grew near by. The three, wrote Mr. Trevelyan, prayed for the sake of God that an end might be put to their suffering. Their prayer was heard. Their bodies were cast with the others into the well, and the bloody work fitly finished by the slaughter of two fair-haired children, who in some unknown manner had escaped the sword the night before, and were now moving in childish terror about the well. One person was of opinion that the man who threw them in first took the trouble to kill the children—others thought not. "I have seen the fearful slaughter-house," wrote the *Times* correspondent, "and also saw one of the First Native Infantry men, according to order, wash up part of the blood which stains the floor before burying; the quantities of dresses, clogged thickly with blood, children's frocks, frills, and ladies' underclothing of all kinds, also boys' trousers, leaves of Bibles, and of one book in particular which seemed to be strewed over the whole place, called 'Preparation for Death,' also broken daguerreotype cases only, lots of them, and hair, some nearly a yard long; bonnets all bloody, and one or two shoes. I picked up a bit of paper with on it 'Ned's hair, with love,' and opened, I found a little bit tied up with a riband." *

* Quoted in "Annals of our Time," by Joseph Irving.

Within two months from the first outbreak of mutiny, General Henry Havelock had commenced his "march of fire." He left Allahabad early in July with 2,000 British and Sikh troops, and again and again he routed large bodies of Sepoys on his way to Cawnpore. Havelock, one of the noblest examples of the Christian soldier of which even the Indian Army can boast, was a veteran of forty years' service, a man of justice and righteous judgment, and of splendid valour. Between the 7th and the 16th of July he marched with his army a hundred and twenty six miles under a deadly sun and fought four actions. After one of them—the battle of Futtehpore—he told, in "the order of the day" issued to the troops, the story of the engagement in these Cromwell-like words :—

HAVELOCK.

"General Havelock thanks his soldiers for their arduous exertions of yesterday, which produced in four hours the strange result of a rebel army driven from a strong position, eleven guns captured, and their whole force scattered to the winds, without the loss of a single British soldier. To what is this astounding effect to be attributed? To the fire of British artillery, exceeding in rapidity and precision all that the Brigadier has ever witnessed in his not short career; to the power of the Enfield rifle in British hands; to British pluck, that great quality which has survived the vicissitudes of the hour and gained intensity from the crisis; and to the blessing of Almighty God on a most righteous cause, the cause of justice, humanity, truth, and good government in India."

From Futtehpore Havelock continued his march towards Cawnpore. The heat was terrific; twelve of his men died from its effects, but a terrible purpose was before that gallant little army, and nothing could hinder their onward march. At Aong on the 15th of July, another battle was fought, and notwithstanding that the country was thickly wooded, the enemy in overwhelming numbers, and that Havelock had only twenty horses to protect his flanks, he was once more victorious. Then he advanced to the Bridge over the Pandoo Nuddee, which was defended by guns of heavy calibre, and again the enemy fled before him. It was when the news of this victory reached Nana Sahib that he ordered the immediate execution of the wives and the children of the British soldiers in Cawnpore—the horrible massacre we have described.

On the 16th of July, ignorant of the atrocities which had been committed on the previous day, Havelock fought the great battle of Cawnpore—that battle in which 1,000 British soldiers and 300 Sikhs fighting under a deadly sun, with the aid of only eighteen horses against a superior artillery and numerous cavalry, drove from a position skilfully selected and strongly entrenched, a body of 5,000 native troops trained and disciplined by our own officers.

"Perhaps in no action that was ever fought was the superior power of arrangement, moral force, personal daring, and physical strength of the European over the Asiatic more apparent. The rebels fought well; many of them did not flinch from a hand-to-hand

encounter with our troops; they stood well to their guns, served them with accuracy; but yet, in spite of this, of their strong position, of their disproportionate excess in number, they were beaten."*

There was no time to rest; intelligence had reached Havelock that Nana Sahib was established at Bithoor with 45 guns and 5,000 troops. It was a desperate position. Havelock had lost 100 men at Cawnpore; his force was small and greatly exhausted, and for the first time in his life he gave way to gloomy forebodings. Rousing himself he cried:—"If the worst comes to the worst we can but die with our swords in our hands." Nana Sahib's forebodings were gloomier, for he fled from Bithoor without striking a blow, and the General on the 19th of July, occupied the city without resistance. Returning to Cawnpore the little army had just a few hours' breathing time, and then on the 21st they crossed the Ganges and commenced their march to Lucknow, whence the disastrous news of the death of Sir Henry Lawrence had just arrived.

Many obstacles arose to prevent Havelock from reaching that ill-fated city, the greatest being an outbreak of cholera, so severe that it compelled his falling back again upon Cawnpore. It was in some respects well that he did so, for Nana Sahib had returned to Bithoor with a largely increased force and was threatening Cawnpore—in which was General Niell with an impoverished force—from all directions. Havelock marched against Bithoor, fought a desperate battle at fearful odds, and in one short hour drove from one of the strongest positions in India, the flower of the mutinous soldiery. Nana Sahib fled, some say to die a little later on of malarial fever, but nothing was ever known of what really became of him.

Meanwhile the cry for help from the beleaguered fortress at Lucknow was becoming piteous. Colonel Inglis wrote on the 12th of August to Havelock:—

"It is quite impossible, with my weak and shattered force, that I can leave my defences. You must bear in mind how I am hampered, that I have upwards of 120 sick and wounded, and at least 220 women, and about 230 children, and no carriage of any description, besides sacrificing 23 lacs of treasure and about 30 guns of all sorts. In consequence of the news received, I shall put this force on half rations. Our provisions will last us then till about the 10th of September. If you hope to save this force, no time must be lost in pushing forward. We are daily being attacked by the enemy, who are within a few yards of our defences."

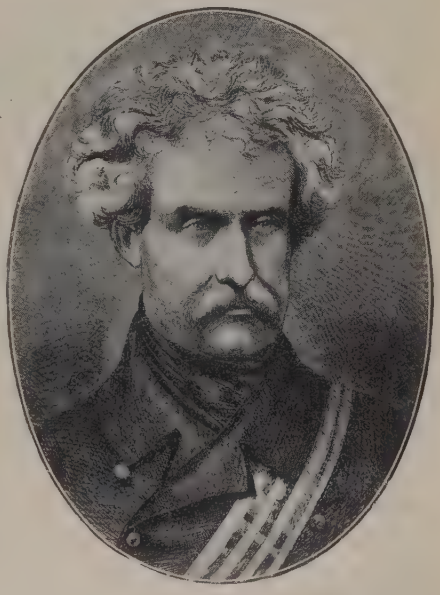
When Havelock returned from Bithoor to Cawnpore, almost the first news that reached him was that he was superseded by Sir James Outram! The Government of India had thought fit to deprive him of his command in the very midst of his victorious career. Havelock bore the crushing blow like a man, a Christian, and a soldier, and Sir James Outram acted as only the "Bayard of India" could. That chivalrous officer made his first communication to Havelock in these terms:—"I shall join you with the reinforcements. But to you shall be left the glory of relieving Lucknow, for which you have already struggled so much. I shall accompany you only in my civil capacity as Commissioner, placing my military services at your disposal should you please, serving under you as a volunteer."

The days of chivalry can furnish no parallel to this. There is a grandeur in the very simplicity and frankness with which his self-sacrifice was made, while the act itself revealed a nobleness of character, a greatness of soul, that won the unbounded admiration of all true men throughout the world.

* "The Indian Mutiny." Sir J. W. Kaye.

On the 19th of September, Havelock, accompanied by Sir James Outram, set forth to complete that series of brilliant exploits which have made his name memorable in our military annals. They came upon the enemy in position at Mungulwar, and after an obstinate conflict of four hours completely routed them and captured four guns. The next encounter was at Alumbagh, where the flower of the enemy were assembled and were conquered; and then came the mighty struggle, when through a storm of shot and missiles, pouring down from the loop-holed houses on either side, the Residency was entered and Lucknow was relieved, after being besieged by the rebel Sepoys for eighty-seven days. "Then," says an eye-witness, "the garrison's long pent up feelings of anxiety and suspense burst forth in a succession of deafening cheers. From every pit, trench and battery—from behind the sand bags piled on shattered houses—from every post still held by a few gallant spirits—rose cheer on cheer; even from the hospital many of the wounded crawled forth to join in that glad shout of welcome to those who had so bravely come to our assistance. It was a moment never to be forgotten. The delight of the ever gallant Highlanders who had fought twelve battles to enjoy that moment of ecstacy, and in the last four days had lost a third of their number, seemed to know no bounds."

There was, however, a gloomy aspect to the victory. The loss in killed and wounded was terrible, and General Niell, one of the bravest and best soldiers who ever served in India, was shot dead by a bullet. Another distressing thing was that the beleaguered garrison could only be nominally relieved, as it was impossible to extricate the helpless mass of women and children and non-combatants from their perilous position by marching back upon Cawnpore. There was nothing, therefore, but for the Generals to remain at Lucknow, strengthen the garrison by the troops they had brought, and await the arrival of Sir Colin Campbell (afterwards Lord Clyde), the new Commander-in-Chief, who was on his way to their relief. When Sir Colin received his appointment he was asked when he would be ready to start; he replied "To-morrow," and on the morrow, without waiting to prepare his outfit, he started. This was characteristic of the whole course of action of this brave, stout-hearted soldier. His brilliant deeds cannot be told at length here. He marched on Lucknow, which he stormed and captured with all the stores and guns of those who held it. The relief came on the 17th of November and "it was impossible," wrote Havelock, "to describe the enthusiasm with which the signal was received by the troops. Pent up in inaction for six weeks and subjected to constant attacks they felt that the hour of retribution and glorious exertion had returned. Their cheers echoed through the courts of the palace responsive to the bugle sound, and on they rushed to assured victory The enemy could nowhere withstand them. In a few minutes the whole of the buildings were in our possession." General Havelock did not long survive



SIR COLIN CAMPBELL.

this deliverance. A few days after Sir Colin's gallant entry into Lucknow, Havelock was taken ill with dysentery and it was a sickness unto death, the result of long fatigue and exposure, and the taxing of his powers to the very utmost of human endurance. Attended night and day by his son, he calmly awaited the end. When Sir James Outram came to bid him farewell, Havelock said, "I have for forty years so ruled my life that when death came I might face it without fear." On the 24th of November his spirit passed calmly back into the hands of Him who gave it. On the following day he was laid to rest in a grave near the Alumbagh. Around it stood the iron chief, Sir Colin Campbell, and Outram the "Bayard of India," and Inglis, the noble defender of Lucknow, and many of the brave men who had followed him in all that wondrous "march of fire." It has been well said that "as long as the memory of great deeds, and high courage, and spotless self-devotion is cherished among his countrymen, so long will

THE DILKOOSHA PALACE, LUCKNOW, WHERE HAVELOCK DIED, 1857.

Havelock's lonely tomb in the grave beneath the scorching Eastern sky, hard by the vast city, the scene alike of his toil, his triumph, and his death, be regarded as one of the most holy of the many spots where our patriot soldiers lie."

While these things had been going forward at Lucknow and its neighbourhood, desperate doings had taken place at Delhi. The siege had begun on the 4th of June under Sir Henry Barnard, who had at first only 3,000 British troops, but was reinforced with both men and guns by Sir John Lawrence. Three long weary months were, however, to pass before the necessary strength to capture the city could be obtained. At last on the 4th of September, the besieging force received the long-looked for siege train from Meerut, and operations commenced. "Fire was opened on the 11th; two days afterwards the Cashmere gate was blown up, the feat being accomplished by a mere handful of brave and desperate men in the face of what seemed certain death. During the next few days a determined opposition was kept up, and our troops were able only slowly to make good their progress, but on the morning of the

20th of September they captured the Lahore gate and then gradually advanced upon other bastions and gates until the whole of the external defences of Delhi were in our hands." Brigadier-General Nicholson who led the storming columns, paid for his bravery and success the price of a gallant life. He was shot through the body and died three days after the English standard had been planted on the roof of the Palace of the Moguls. "The king fled from the palace, and nearly the whole of the rebels rushed in confusion out of the city, across the bridge of boats into the Doab, abandoning their camp property, many of their sick and wounded, and the greater part of their field artillery." That night the health of Queen Victoria was drunk in the chief hall of the Palace of the Great Mogul where General Wilson had established his head quarters. An act, which gave rise to much controversy, followed the flight of the king. A young officer, named Hodson, of "Hodson's Horse," offered to General Wilson to capture the king and the royal family of Delhi. Permission was given to make the attempt, on condition that the life of the king should be spared. Hodson discovered the royal family in the environs of a vast tomb, and at once ordered them to lay down their arms. This was done, and on the next day Hodson captured the three sons, royal princes of Delhi, and tried, condemned, and executed them with his own hand on the spot. Referring to this event Sir J. W. Kaye says, "I must aver without hesitation that the general feeling in England was one of profound grief not unmingled with detestation. I never heard the act approved; I never heard it even defended."

The last place where the mutiny lingered was near the Mahratta towns of Gwalior and Jhansi. There the rebellion was headed by the Ranee of Jhansi, a cruel and vindictive princess, who, to avenge the annexation in 1854 of her deceased husband's country, massacred a number of English prisoners. She opposed the advance of Sir Hugh Rose (afterwards Lord Strathnairn), and rode in battle like a modern Joan of Arc. She fought like a man under the walls of Gwalior, and fell, sabre in hand, at the head of her troops. This was practically the end of the mutiny; there were struggles here and struggles there, but the neck of the mutiny had been broken with the capture of the strongholds of Delhi and Lucknow, and all that followed were but the convulsive movements of death.

It could not be otherwise than that such a mighty revolution should be followed by important changes. The English residents in India and the people of England—the latter for the first time—began to realise that it was somewhat of an anomaly for this mighty Indian Empire to be governed by the directors of a trading company. An Act for the better government of India, providing that the administration of India should pass entirely out of the hands of the East India Company into those of the Queen, became law early in 1858. The provision was that the Queen should govern through a Secretary of State, and a Council of fifteen, seven of whom were to be nominated by the Court of Directors and eight by the Crown. The Governor-General was made a Viceroy, the Indian navy was discontinued, and the twenty-four European regiments in the Company's service were amalgamated with the Royal Army.

No account of the Indian Mutiny, however brief and incomplete, would be passable unless it contained some special reference to the bravery, the fortitude, the noble and heroic endurance of the residents in India during that protracted period of intense anxiety and

suffering. If the Mutiny had no other lesson than to teach how splendid is the innate courage of the English character; how Christian principle is ingrained into the very heart's core of the nation, and how, despite the enervating influence of the highest civilisation, its manhood has developed rather than deteriorated, these fearful years were not altogether in vain. There were Clives to be found in every garrison in India, and they were found as Clive was found—among the civilians. Many of the acts of intrepidity—and if anyone will take up a file of the *Times* for 1857-8, he will find hundreds of thrilling narratives—were performed by men who were not soldiers, but Englishmen only, who came forth with credit and honour from scenes of almost unparalleled difficulty and horror. "Women, too, conducted themselves with invincible fortitude, sharing the perils and privations of their protectors, and steadfastly supporting, in the sufferings of a flight or a siege, trials which might well be considered unendurable. How ladies delicately nurtured, and enfeebled even beyond their natural weakness by the climate of Hindostan, could have survived such hardships as usually attended an escape from the scenes of murder, has appeared inconceivable even to Indians themselves."*

There was no faint-heartedness anywhere, neither among officers robbed of their men, nor of civilians suddenly transformed into soldiers. Everywhere were displayed the promptitude, coolness and courage of the Anglo-Saxon race. Our countrymen met the calls of a murderous surprise as they would have done those of any ordinary duty. "If there was a fort in the place, they retired to it with the women and children, extemporised defences, invented substitutes for all that was lacking, and held out to the last. If there was no place of protection, and no resource but flight, man and wife ran the gauntlet together through the swarms of murderers around them, and either saved their lives or sold them dearly. If there was anything like a chance of fighting on an open field, no odds were refused, nor were they considered too great to overcome." †

Not only in the tented field, but amid the horrors of a field-hospital, scenes of heroism were daily witnessed. One, who saw such scenes in all their sickening reality, wrote thus:—"There lie England's sons as brave in suffering as in action; . . . while, in the midst of all, calm, self-possessed, not daring even to give utterance to the sympathy with which, despite familiarity with suffering, their hearts are overflowing, the surgeons move noiselessly about from patient to patient; and the chaplains, too, are there, sick at heart in such a scene of woe, and only sustained by the sense of their high office, striving to minister, so far as may be, to the needs of others."‡

Never did gentlewomen acquit themselves with greater heroism than in those long and fearful months of siege. They had to perform for themselves the most menial offices; they lived in the midst of constant and appalling danger; they were always under the terror of great calamities falling upon them; they saw the dead or wounded bodies of their nearest and dearest brought in from the outworks; they saw their children agonise under the mortal effects of some stray shot; disease in its most horrible forms broke out amongst them—cholera, small-pox, dysentery—but cheerfully they set to work to alleviate the pains of the sufferers, and to do all those offices of love and tenderness which could soothe the sick and the dying, and cheer and sustain the living.

* The *Times*, September 2nd, 1857. † Heroes of Britain, Vol. II. page 277.

‡ Cave-Brown. "The Punjab and Delhi in 1857."

We commenced this chapter with a motto and we close it with another, applicable to nations as to individuals :—

"Be great in act as you have been in thought ;
Be stirring at the time ; be fire with fire ;
Threaten the threatener, and outface the brow
Of bragging horror ; so shall inferior eyes,
That borrow their behaviour from the great,
Grow great by your example, and put on
The dauntless spirit of resolution."

THE RESIDENCY, LUCKNOW ; AS IT IS TO-DAY.

CHAPTER XXXVII.

GREAT EXPLORERS AND EXPLORATIONS.

ON the 26th of May, 1845, Sir John Franklin, then in his 60th year, sailed from Sheerness in command of the *Erebus* and *Terror* on what proved to be his last Polar Expedition. The problem before him was to find an Arctic water-way between the Atlantic and the Pacific. He was accompanied by Captain Crozier, as second in command, Commander Fitz-James, Lieutenants Gore, Le Vescomte, Fairholme, and other experienced officers, including Stanley and Goodsir,

surgeons, and as fine a set of able-bodied men as ever trod a deck. The ships were in every way well-appointed; they had a hundred and twenty-nine souls on board the two vessels, and were provisioned for three years. From Whale-Fish Islands near Disco, dispatches were sent home and Fitz-James wrote to his friends:—"I wish I could convey to you a just idea of the immense stock of good feeling, good humour, and real kindness

of heart in our small mess. We are very happy!" A few days later they were seen by a homeward-bound whaler in Baffin's Bay as they steered for the ice-bound north. And that report was the last direct information ever received from them.

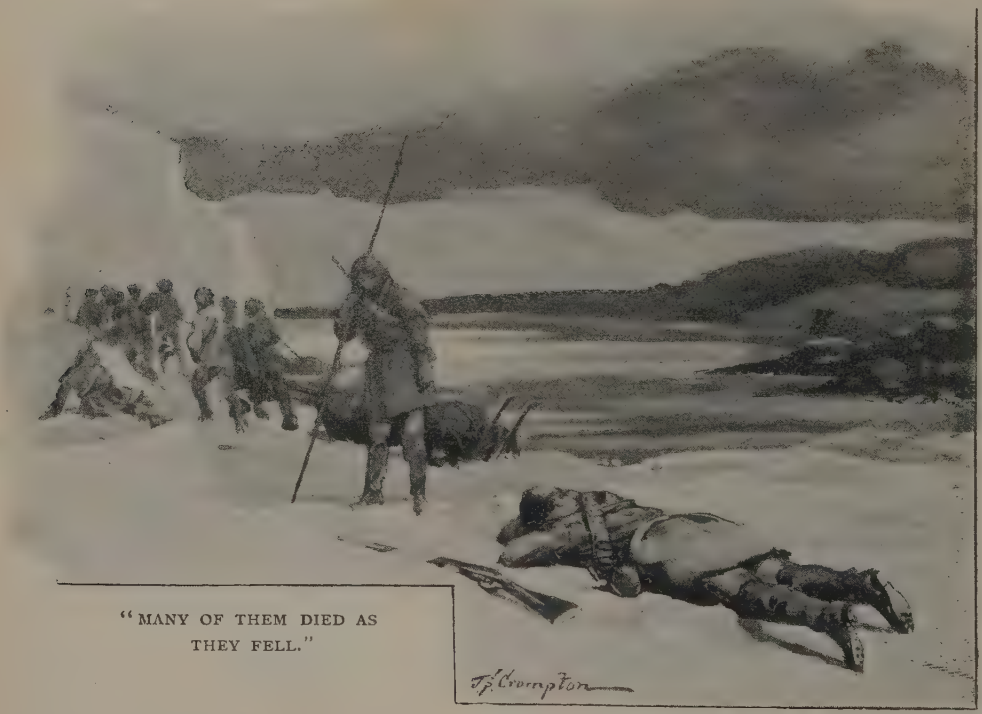
After five years of patient waiting, the British Government offered rewards through the *Gazette*, first, to any party or parties who, in the judgment of the Board of Admiralty, should discover and effectually relieve the crews of Her Majesty's ships *Erebus* and *Terror*, the sum of £20,000; or, second, should convey such intelligence as should lead to the relief of the crews or any of them, £10,000; or, third, should by virtue of his or their efforts first succeed in ascertaining their state £10,000.

Search expeditions were originated in all quarters, and Lady Franklin, the heroic wife of the Commander, spent nearly the whole of her large fortune in equipping vessels for the purpose. The Queen, the Government, the People, all were interested in the search and prosecuted it with the greatest enthusiasm. Up to 1859 England sent out no fewer than thirty-two vessels; overland parties were sent from time to time by the Hudson's Bay Company; Mr. Henry Grinnell, a wealthy merchant of New York, purchased, equipped, and provisioned at his sole charge, the *Advance* and the *Rescue*, and placed them at the control of the American Government that they might be commanded by naval officers and sail under naval discipline. France sent her contribution, and gave Lieutenant Bellot, and De Bray to the rescue; Tasmania, where for seven years Franklin had held the post of Governor, sent a contribution of £1,700. Ross, Richardson, Rae, Austin, Ommanney, Penny, De Haven, Mc.Clure, Belcher, Collinson, Osborn, Kane, and many other gallant sailors and explorers, gave their services, their time, and some of them, their lives, in scouring the Arctic Seas in all directions for traces of the missing ships. From each of these were required—and found—those special qualifications needful in this particularly arduous work—iron nerve, quick decision, steady judgment, unfailing pluck, and untiring energy. Captain Penny of the *Lady Franklin* was the first to ascertain tidings of the missing crews. He succeeded in tracing the first winter quarters of the *Erebus* and *Terror*:—On a slope of land between the southern bluffs of Beechey Island and the land of North Devon, he found a number of preserved meat tins, and on the ridge of the slope a cairn built up of layers of meat tins filled with gravel to make a strong foundation. Not far distant he found the embankment of a house, with washing tubs, pieces of rope and clothing, and a little farther off three graves of men of the *Erebus* and *Terror*:—J. Torrington, who departed this life January 1, 1846, on board H.M.S. *Terror*, aged twenty years; William Braine, R.M., of H.M.S. *Erebus*, died April 3rd, 1846, aged thirty-two; J. Hartwell, A.B., of H.M.S. *Erebus*, died January 4th, 1846, aged twenty-five years.

Later on, namely in 1854, further information was obtained of the ill-fated ships. Dr. John Rae was again solving some geographical problems on behalf of the Hudson's Bay Company, when he fell in with some Eskimos of Boothia Felix, from whom he learned that about six years previously they had seen "nearly forty white men dragging a boat and sledges over the ice on the western shore of King William's Land." They told him that the ships had been crushed in the ice and that the men were starving; that a few months later the bodies of thirty of these men had been found by the Eskimos, some on the mainland, and some on an island a short distance from the Great Fish River. They stated that some had perished in their tents, others had been laid in graves, while many of them "died as they fell," and were left untended with regard to burial. To confirm the truth of their statement, they produced certain articles of silver bearing Franklin's crest, besides other relics known to have been in the possession of officers of

the expedition. The weight of proof being irresistible the Government handed over to Dr. Rae and his party the £10,000 promised to anyone who should bring trustworthy intelligence of the fate of the expedition.

One of the most interesting of the search expeditions was that conducted by Captain Robert Mc.Clure of the *Investigator*, and the most exciting incident of the expedition was when Mc.Clure, with a sledge manned by six men, started off for Barrow's Strait and the discovery of the North West Passage. "After a toilsome journey of five days, living upon the most frugal fare, and experiencing enormous difficulties—for in those days the appliances were not invented which have now rendered sledge travelling comparatively easy—they came at last to a hill about 600 feet above the sea level, and ascending it they had a view which fairly took away their breath They gazed upon



"MANY OF THEM DIED AS THEY FELL."

Prince Albert Land and Bank's Land and away to the north, across the entrance of Prince of Wales' Strait, lay the frozen waters of Barrow's—or, as it is now called, Melville Strait, and 'raised as they were at an altitude of 600 feet above its level, the eyesight embraced a distance which precluded the possibility of any land lying in that direction between them and Melville Island. The North West Passage was discovered! All doubt as to the water-communication between the two great oceans was removed; and it now alone remained for Captain Mc.Clure, his officers and men, to perfect the work by traversing the few thousand miles of known ground between them and their homes.'"*

Although Mc.Clure was unable to find any trace of the missing Franklin Expedition he secured the reward of £10,000 as a token of approbation. "It was a triumph," said

* "The Discovery of the North West Passage by H.M.S. *Investigator*; Captain Robert Mc.Clure, 1850-4. Edited by Commander Sherard Osborn."

Lord Stanley in addressing Captain Cresswell, who first brought to England the intelligence of Mc.Clure's success, "that would not be valued the less highly because it was not stained by bloodshed—a triumph which was not embittered by any single painful or melancholy reminiscence—a triumph not over man, but over nature—a triumph which inflicts no injury and which humiliates no enemy—a triumph not for this age alone, but for posterity—not for England, but for mankind."

Immediately upon Mc.Clure's return, after an absence of nearly five years, the terrible news of the fate of the crews of the *Erebus* and *Terror* was communicated to the Admiralty by Dr. Rae. As only forty survivors had been seen and a hundred and twenty-nine formed the complement of the two vessels, much uneasiness was felt for the remainder, especially by Lady Franklin, who urged that the Government should undertake one more expedition in the hope that some survivors should yet be rescued,

"A SLEDGE MANNED BY SIX MEN."

some traces of the missing ships found, and its valuable diaries, logs, and other records secured. Her appeal—which in the space of forty-eight hours was signed by every leading man of science then in London—was declined by Lord Palmerston on the ground that "the members of Her Majesty's Government having come with great regret to the conclusion that there was no prospect of saving life, would not be justified, for any objects which in their opinion could be obtained by an expedition to the Arctic Seas, in exposing the lives of officers and men to the risk inseparable from such an enterprise." Lady Franklin thereupon determined that she would, at her own cost, even to her last farthing, organise an expedition of her own. She was not, however, allowed to bear this expense alone; contributions came in from all quarters, including the Admiralty. The command of the expedition was offered to Captain Leopold Mc.Clintock, one of the most distinguished of Arctic voyagers, who had undergone a larger amount of actual personal fatigue and personal service in conducting sleighing parties than any of his many

compeers. He was nobly seconded by Lieutenant Hobson and Captain Allen Young, of the Mercantile Marine. In July, 1857, Lady Franklin's yacht, the *Fox*, a sharp bowed little screw steam yacht—"a tiny bit of a thing to undertake so perilous a journey and to be launched into those turbulent seas from which every other vessel had been withdrawn"—set sail from Aberdeen. The mess room for five persons measured only 8 feet, the crew consisted of twenty-five souls, seventeen of whom had previously served in the Arctic search. The 1st of September, 1857, saw the *Fox* beset among the closing ice in Melville Bay. It was a terrible winter, and after various hair-breadth escapes and 242 days' imprisonment, it was found that they had been drifted back by the floating ice more than 1,200 miles with the prospect of total destruction at any moment. Of the marvellous adventures, of the patience and endurance of officers and men, of the almost miraculous escapes of the little vessel, we do not propose to speak, but rather of the results of the expedition. On the 1st of March, 1858, when Mc.Clintock and Carl Petersen were on a sledging expedition, they found to their great surprise four men following them, but their surprise was almost greater when they observed a naval button on the dress of one of the Eskimos. In answer to the inquiry where the button came from, they replied "from some white people who were starved upon an island where there are salmon" (that is to say in a river), and they volunteered the information that the iron of which their knives were made came from the same place. Following up the clue, Mc.Clintock came in contact with the entire population of the village to which these four men belonged, and purchased every relic that could be obtained of the lost expedition. Important information was gained from these natives; one said that he had seen human bones upon the island where the expedition was starved; another, that a ship having three masts had been crushed by the ice out in the sea to the west of King William's Island, but that all the people landed safely. Little by little further information was elicited from the reticent natives until Mc.Clintock learned from an old woman that "many of the white men dropped by the way as they went to the great river, and that some were buried and others were not." Finally, it was ascertained that the place where one ship was seen to sink in deep water, while the other was forced on shore by the ice, was only five days' journey off, and thither Mc.Clintock made his way. On the 25th of May he came across a bleached human skeleton, lying upon its face, partly buried in the snow, showing that the man had met his death as the Eskimos had said; "they fell down and died as they walked along." Meanwhile Hobson, who had preceded Mc.Clintock in the search, had found a "record for which valuable lives had been sacrificed, noble deeds had been done, thousands of pounds had been spent, and the whole world had been waiting—a record that set at rest for ever the question of the fate of Sir John Franklin and his companions." It was written on an Admiralty printed form supplied to discovery-ships for the purpose of being enclosed in bottles and thrown overboard at sea in order to ascertain the set of the currents, blanks being left for the

Elliott & Fry.

SIR LEOPOLD Mc.CLINTOCK.

date and position, and a request made in six languages that the document might be at once forwarded to the Secretary of the English Admiralty. Upon this printed form, apparently in the handwriting of Lieutenant Gore, was the following :—

"28th of May, 1847 } H.M. ships *Erebus* and *Terror* wintered in the ice in lat. 70° 5'N., long. 98° 23'W.

Having wintered in 1846-7* at Beechey Island, in lat. 74° 43′ 28″ N., long. 91° 39′ 15″ W., after having ascended Wellington Channel to lat. 77°, and returned by the west side of Cornwallis Island.

"Sir John Franklin commanding the expedition.

"All well.

"Party consisting of two officers and six men left the ships on Monday, 24th May, 1847.

"Gm. Gore, Lieutenant.

"Chas. F. Des Vœux, Mate."

Round the margin of the paper had been written by another hand, and at a subsequent date, these words :—

"April 25th, 1848.—H.M. ships *Terror* and *Erebus*, were deserted on the 22nd April, five leagues N.N.W. of this, having been beset since 12th September, 1846. The officers and crews, consisting of 105 souls, under the command of Captain F. R. M. Crozier, landed here in lat. 69° 37′ 42″ N., long. 98° 41′ W. Sir John Franklin died on the 11th June, 1847; and the total loss by deaths in the expedition has been to this date nine officers and fifteen men.

(Signed) "F. R. M. Crozier, Captain and Senior Officer. (Signed) "James FitzJames, Captain H.M.S. *Erebus*.

and start (on) to-morrow, 26th, for Back's Fish River."

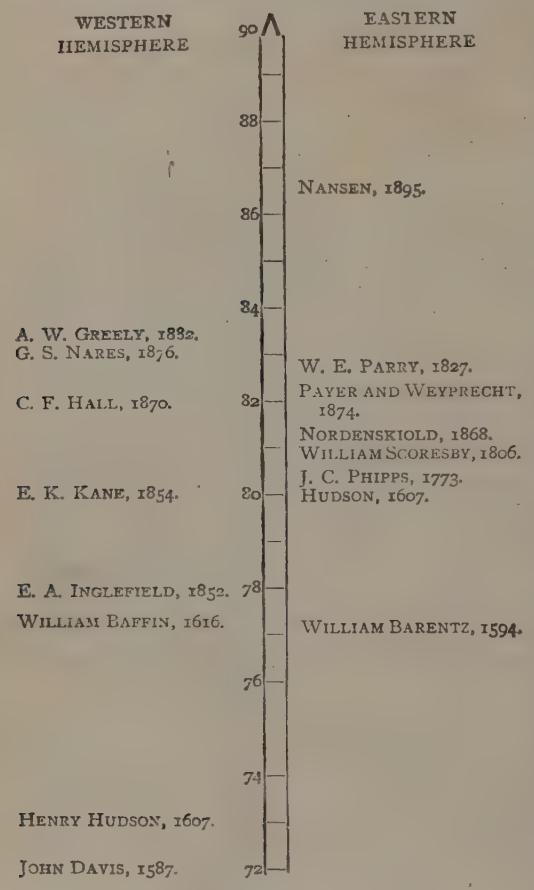
It is a touching story, told in few words. Sherard Osborn has written the epitaph of the lost leader of the expedition in these words :—"Oh, mourn him not, seamen and brother Englishmen, unless we can point to a more honourable end or a nobler grave. Like another Moses, he fell when his work was accomplished, with the long object of his life in view. Franklin, the discoverer of the North-West Passage, has his Pisgah, and so long as his countrymen shall hold dear disinterested devotion and gallant perseverance in a good cause, so long shall they point to the career and fate of this noble sailor."

"That Franklin did virtually solve the problem which was the object of his voyage," says Mr. Franklin Lushington, "is not only testified to by all who have a right to speak authoritatively, but is a fact which rests upon unimpeachable grounds. He designedly took the very course down Peel Sound and Franklin Channel which would have carried his ships, but for the terrible duration of that temporary obstacle of the ice-pack in which they were beset for two winters, straight to the most easterly point of the along-shore channel which he already knew. He died himself in full sight of the goal; his ships never traversed the short water space which lay between their anchorage in the pack, and the lines which other keels had ploughed from the West."

To the loss of Franklin's expedition and to the absorbing interest taken in the mystery of his fate, we owe our present complete knowledge of the Arctic regions. If it had happened that he had left his ships and safely returned with his crews, the probability is that no further efforts would have been made to force the navigation of a practically fruitless passage, and if, on purely scientific grounds another expedition had been organised, it is very doubtful whether any such stimulus to unsparing exertion and

* A clerical error was made as regards the date. It should have been 1845-6 instead of 1846-7 that the expedition wintered at Beechey Island.

minute investigation could have been found as that which animated alike officers and common seamen in the search for the missing ships and their crews.



CLIMBING THE NORTH POLE

The result of the various Franklin expeditions was that the intricate network of islands dotted over the north of North America were successfully mapped out, although none of these discoveries reached much farther north than 75°.

Among the later explorations in the region of the North Pole may be mentioned the expedition of Captain (afterwards Sir George) Nares, one of whose lieutenants, Pelham Aldrich, succeeded in reaching 82·48 N.; the expedition, for commercial purposes, of Captain Wiggins, and for scientific purposes, the great journeys of Professor (afterwards Baron) Nordenskiöld; the bold enterprise in 1895-7 of Dr. Fridjof Nansen, who advanced farthest North of any explorer and reached 86·14° N.; and the daring attempt of M. Andrèe who, in the autumn of 1897, started in his balloon for the Pole, provisioned for a long stay in the Arctic regions, but of whose whereabouts nothing has been heard authoritatively since the day he started on his highly dangerous enterprise.

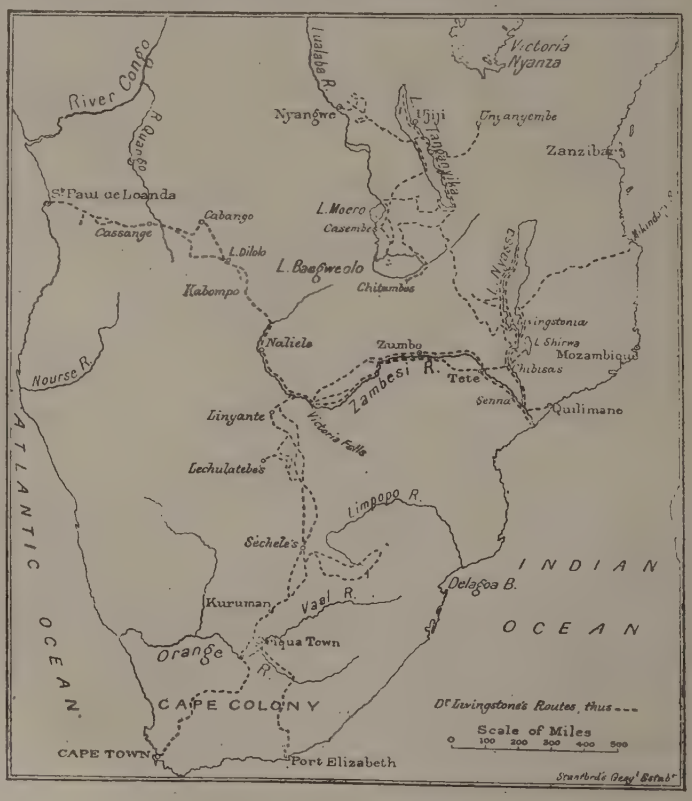
Probably no explorations ever excited more enthusiastic interest than those in Africa, and no explorers were ever followed step by step in their journeyings with profounder sympathy and regard than the brave scientists, philanthropists, and missionaries who have opened up, for endless possibilities in the 20th century, the dark Continent.

After the great slave agitation of Sharp, Clarkson, Wilberforce, and Buxton, when the nation had purchased the freedom of every slave in the British West India Colonies, a general agitation arose for the suppression of slavery everywhere, but especially in Africa. In 1840, Prince Albert presided at the first meeting of the "Society for the Extinction of the Slave Trade and for the Civilisation of Africa." It was the first public address he had delivered, and was so successful that in the same year an expedition was sent to the Niger for the purpose of encouraging the natives and teaching them the principles of legitimate trade. The expedition failed completely, and some years passed before any direct steps were taken in slave trade matters. The agitation, however, still went on, attention being diverted from the Niger in the West to Zanzibar in the South of Africa. It was ascertained that 20,000 slaves were annually exported from Zanzibar,

A. F. Baird.

AFRICAN SLAVERY.

and that the horrible trade was carried on by protected British subjects. In course of time Burton, Speke, Grant, Livingstone, Baker, and other explorers, told the story of its fearful cruelty and injustice. "This hateful trade," says Livingstone, "is the curse of Africa which our brave explorers, and our not less brave public men at home, have nobly laboured to remove; a trade by means of which intestine wars are increased, useful industries abolished, peaceful villages burnt, valuable tracts of country depopulated, the progress of civilisation hopelessly hindered, and the spread of Christianity rendered an impossibility." David Livingstone, to whom, more than to any other individual, Africa is indebted, started on his missionary life in 1840, and for many years lived and taught among the Bechuanas, varying that monotonous work by journeys into the interior. In 1849, owing in a great measure to the persistent opposition of the Boers, he determined to seek out new fields for missionary labour, and at the same time to solve some problems of geographical science. In company with Messrs. Oswell and Murray he crossed the Kalahari Desert, and discovered Lake N'gami, an inland sea, which no European eye had ever rested upon before, and the Zambesi River, and made the acquaintance of Sebituani, the powerful chief of the Makololo tribe. After these discoveries Livingstone returned to the Cape, and having come to the conclusion that the time was ripe for him to penetrate farther into the heart of the country he sent his wife and children back to England, and then plunged into the wilderness, "and was lost to the world as completely, for a time, as if he had been swallowed up by the waves, or gone down quick into the grave." It was in June, 1852, that he plunged into the wilderness to open up a country shrouded in mystery. He proceeded from Cape Town across the desert to Linyanti, the capital of the Makololo country. Here he was stricken down with fever, but immediately after his recovery he commenced his journey up the Zambesi. After tarrying some time among the Makololo he directed his steps to Loanda, the Portuguese settlement on the west coast, where he tarried only for a short time, and then retraced his route some distance. On and on he proceeded, through dense forests, over vast plains, through dangerous swamps, across Southern Central Africa to Quilimaine on the east coast. He



DR. LIVINGSTONE'S TRAVELS.

arrived there on the 26th of May, 1856, just four years after he set out from the Cape. A glance at the map will show the relative positions of Linyanti, Loanda, and the mouths of the Zambesi, but the cost of labour and energy necessary to the laying down of those few lines on the map is incalculable. "Difficulties attended almost every step of the way; rivers had to be crossed; waterless deserts to be traversed; districts infested with malaria to be passed; scenes of cruelty in connection with the slave trade, which the noble hearted traveller was impotent to check, had to be witnessed; the cattle died from the fatal bite of the tsetse fly; food ran short, so that the travellers were obliged to subsist at times on frogs, moles, or locusts; and in addition there was the frequently recurring plague of fever, which affected the traveller not only bodily but mentally."

ON THE CONGO.

Livingstone then returned to England, where he was welcomed in all quarters with great delight, no word having come from him for the four years during which he was crossing the entire African Continent. Honours were showered upon him, and his first book, entitled "Missionary Travels and Researches in South Africa," was published in 1857. It gave a great stimulus to interest in African affairs, and especially in the suppression of the iniquitous slave trade. In 1858 Livingstone returned to Africa to follow up the discoveries he had already made. When staying at Lake Shirwa, he heard of a sheet of water to the north, in comparison with which Lake Shirwa was as nothing; and setting off with a party of forty-two all told, he was rewarded on the 16th of

September, 1859, by discovering Lake Nyassa. While he was upon this journey, Mrs. Livingstone had sailed to the east coast in H.M.S. Gorgon, with some members of the Universities Mission, and soon after landing died of fever at Shupanga, April 27th, 1862.

Livingstone then returned to England for a brief space in order to make preparation for another exploration into the interior of Africa. "His object was now to proceed as nearly parallel as possible to the course of the Rovumá, to reach the northern end of Lake Nyassa, and to ascertain where this lake and Lake Tanganyika—known to exist in a north-westerly direction—joined waters. Thence he would endeavour to extend his exploration northwards on the chain of lakes working upwards towards the Nile sources." From this time till his death he was engaged in laborious explorations in the lake regions, especially to the north-west of Nyassa and Tanganyika, where he discovered Lakes Bangweolo and Moreo, and the Upper Congo. Everywhere he found that slavery was the open sore of Africa, and as he then held the position of British Consul he exercised what little authority he could in the interests of humanity. It was on this journey that Livingstone's Johanna men deserted him, and raised a story of his death. This story was not credited by Sir Roderick Murchison, the President of the Royal Geographical Society, who knew the character of Dr. Livingstone well. Disproof of the story came in the shape of letters from the Doctor himself; then two years elapsed, during which not a single word was received from the intrepid explorer. To set anxiety at rest, the Royal Geographical Society organised a search expedition, and in 1872 it started under the command of Lieutenant Dawson; but while this was being organised Mr. James Gordon Bennett, the proprietor of the *New York Herald*, sent out another expedition, under the command of Mr. Henry Stanley, who was successful in finding the missing traveller at Ujiji on Lake Tanganyika. Stanley and Livingstone parted in March, 1872, the former proceeding to Zanzibar, while Livingstone went forward to explore the southern end of Tanganyika. After another year's travelling he was again attacked with severe illness near Lake Bangweolo, where he died at Ilala, attended only by his faithful Nassick boys, one of whom, who had learnt the process of embalming, skilfully embalmed the body, then covering it with the bark of trees to disguise its shape, the "boys" set out with their sacred burden towards Ujiji, and for six months bore it onwards, until they at last arrived in Zanzibar, having travelled over a thousand miles. On the 18th of April, 1874, David Livingstone was buried in Westminster Abbey.

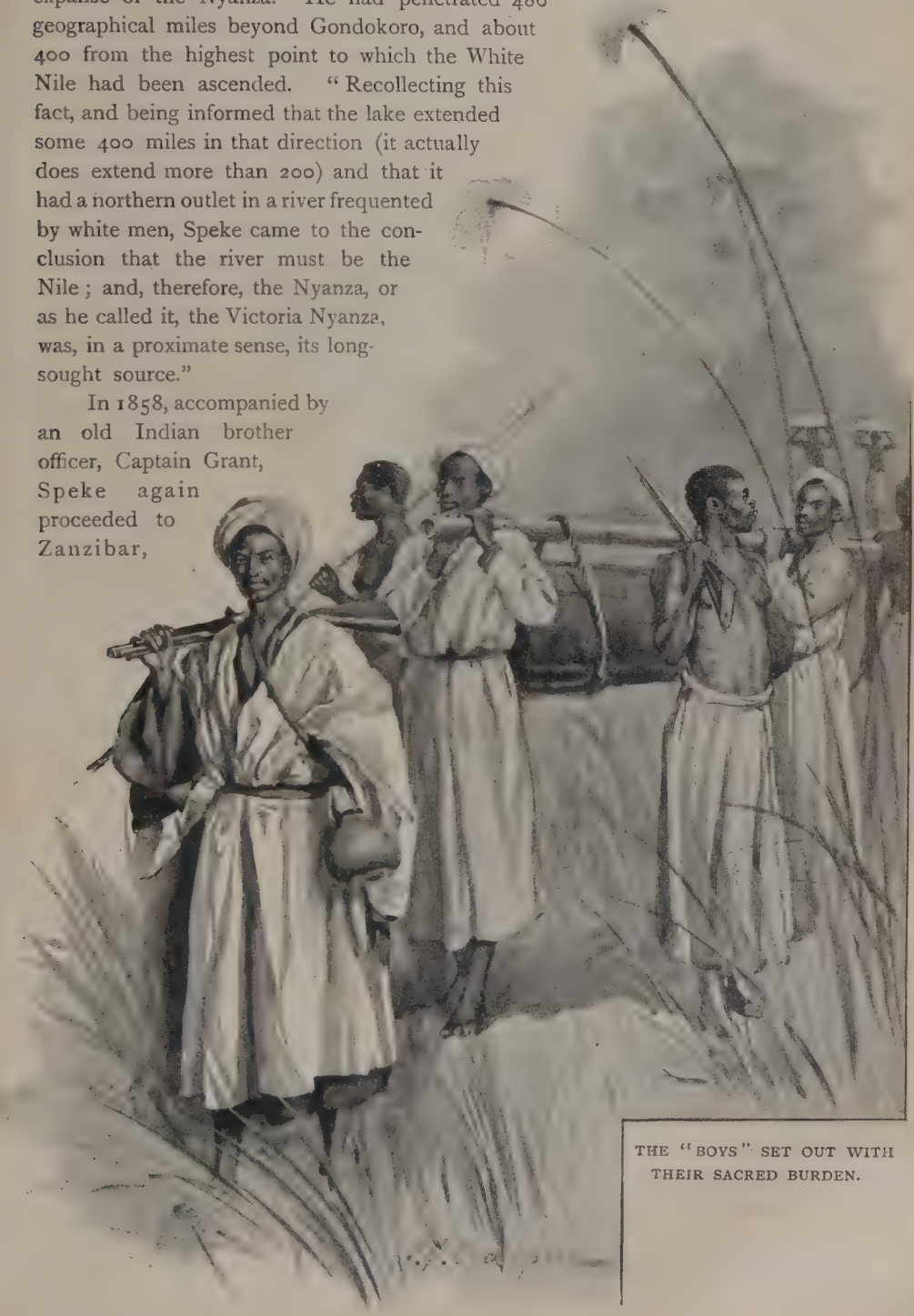
London Stereo. Co.

H. M. STANLEY.

When the African lake question became the question of the day, the Royal Geographical Society took the matter up with vigour, and sent out an expedition, entrusted to Lieutenant (afterwards Sir Richard) Burton and Captain John Hanning

Speke in 1857-59. They set sail for Zanzibar on the third of December, 1856, intending to proceed to Ujiji, but on the journey Burton fell dangerously ill, and Speke went forward alone. He reached Ujiji in safety, and on the 4th of August saw the whole vast expanse of the Nyanza. He had penetrated 480 geographical miles beyond Gondokoro, and about 400 from the highest point to which the White Nile had been ascended. "Recollecting this fact, and being informed that the lake extended some 400 miles in that direction (it actually does extend more than 200) and that it had a northern outlet in a river frequented by white men, Speke came to the conclusion that the river must be the Nile; and, therefore, the Nyanza, or as he called it, the Victoria Nyanza, was, in a proximate sense, its long-sought source."

In 1858, accompanied by an old Indian brother officer, Captain Grant, Speke again proceeded to Zanzibar,



THE "BOYS" SET OUT WITH THEIR SACRED BURDEN.

whence he journeyed by the west route through the territory of Uganda towards the Lake Nyanza. Here they came in contact with M'tesa, the King of Uganda, one of the most powerful and despotic of all African potentates.

On their return journey they were met by another celebrated African explorer, Mr. (afterwards Sir Samuel) Baker, and his noble wife, who had bravely come out in search of them. Proceeding down the Nile to Khartoum, Speke and Grant completed their journey in safety. The feat they accomplished was unparalleled in its way. Speke had walked 1,300 miles through the equatorial regions of Africa, and had dwelt for three years among savage tribes without having had any communication whatever with England, or indeed with any portion of the civilized world. He had solved the great problem of the sources of the Nile. He did not pretend that he had visited all the remote springs of the Nile, or had traced its waters to their fountain head, but he announced that the great lake which he discovered on his first expedition was undoubtedly the chief reservoir and head water from which the mighty river, swollen by a thousand tributary streams in its long passage to the sea, derives its annual floods. Speke was the discoverer of the sources of the Nile, though not of its remotest source; he was the first European who saw the Victoria Nyanza, and he was the opener up of that vast region hitherto unknown, with which English people have since been painfully familiar.

VIEW OF THE SOUTH END OF ALBERT NYANZA.

To sum up, and partly recapitulate in a brief form, some of the more prominent explorations in Africa—for the subject is far too vast to enter into with minuteness—it may be mentioned that in the same year that Livingstone discovered Lake N'gami (1849) Krapf and Rebmann, German missionaries, discovered the mountains Kilimanjaro and Kenia. Dr. Barth, who set out for the Sahara in 1850, accompanied by Richardson and Overweg, returned alone in 1855, his companions having died. "His explorations extended over an area of 2,000,000 square miles of almost unknown territory, and determined the course of the Niger and the true nature of the Sahara." Livingstone in 1853-6—as we have already shown—crossed the African continent from sea to sea, traced part of the Upper Zambesi, and found the Victoria Falls on the Zambesi. In 1858 he continued his exploration of the Zambesi, and established the general features of the geography of this part of Africa. Burton and Speke discovered the great lakes of equatorial Africa, Tanganyika and Victoria Nyanza in 1858, and Speke and Grant visited the latter in 1862, and found that it gave rise to the Nile. In 1864

SOUTH-WEST EXTREMITY OF LAKE VICTORIA NYANZA.

Sir Samuel Baker discovered the Albert Nyanza. Between 1866 and 1873 Livingstone made important explorations to the west and south west of Tanganyika, and discovered Lakes Bangweolo and Moero and part of the Upper Congo. From 1861 to 1874 Gerhard Rohlfs traversed the Sahara, crossing the continent from Tripoli to Lagos. Lieutenant Cameron in 1873-5 explored the country from the west of Lake Tanganyika, and then travelling to the south west, walked across Africa, finally reaching Benguela on the Atlantic coast. In 1874-7 Stanley explored the country between the lakes Victoria Nyanza and Tanganyika, and then proceeded to where Livingstone had struck the Congo, and followed the river down to its mouth, thus finally settling its course, and completing a remarkable and valuable series of explorations. In 1879 Serpa Pinto completed his famous journey across Africa from Benguela to Natal, and in 1881-2 Wissman crossed it from Loanda to Zanzibar and discovered the left affluents of the Congo. Between 1878 and 1884 Mr. Joseph Thomson made important explorations in East Central Africa, and in 1887-9 Stanley conducted the Emin Relief Exploration across Africa, discovering the pigmies, and the vast forest lands, and adding greatly to our knowledge of the interior of Africa.

STANLEY POOL.

Besides these scientific geographers, there have been many exploits of great travellers and sportsmen, whose narratives of adventure have created and sustained keen interest in African exploration. Of these records of "mighty hunters," the stories of Du Chaillu and Gordon Cumming, of Mr. F. C. Selous, and quite recently, of Mr. H. S. H. Cavendish have attracted much attention.

In looking back upon Livingstone's explorations one cannot but feel how deeply the world is indebted to his heroic labours. He was the ideal missionary as well as the ideal explorer, and we close this section with some of his memorable words. "My views of what is missionary duty," he said, "are not so contracted as those of persons whose ideal is that of a dumpty sort of a man with a Bible under his arm. I have laboured in bricks and mortar, at the forge and carpenter's bench, as well as in preaching and medical practice."

"I view the end of the geographical feat as the beginning of the missionary enterprise. I take the latter term in its most extended signification, and include every effort made for the amelioration of our race. Men of science searching after hidden truths,

soldiers battling for the right against tyranny, sailors rescuing the victims of oppression from heartless men-stealers, merchants teaching the nations lessons of mutual dependence, and many others, as well as missionaries, all work in the same direction, and all efforts are over-ruled for one glorious end."

THE PIGMIES AT HOME.

Turning our thoughts now to the great Australian continent, we find ourselves in a world of wonders as regards great explorers and their explorations. We have already glanced at some of these in the first half of the century,* we turn now to one or two, out of many, of a later date. Passing over the researches of Leichhardt, Sturt, Eyre, Mitchell, Oxley, and others, we arrive at the year 1860, when an anonymous donor † offered in the *Melbourne Argus* a sum of £1,000 to induce the Government and others to raise a fund for an exploring expedition into the interior of Australia. On the 20th of August, 1860, Robert O'Hara Burke and William John Wills, the two gallant commanders of the expedition, started from Melbourne in great state with a caravan of twenty-seven camels, horses, waggons, and assistants. "No expedition," said Mr. Burke, as he bade farewell to the mayor of Melbourne, "ever started under such favourable circumstances as this." The cavalcade proceeded by way of Torowoto Swamp to Cooper's Creek, which had been selected as the base of operations, and where a large depôt of provisions was established to fall back upon in case of need. A number of the party were told off to remain at Cooper's Creek until Burke and his companions returned

* See pages 103, 376, &c.. † Afterwards discovered to be Mr. Ambrose Kyte, of Melbourne.

from the Gulf of Carpentaria, and the fullest and most explicit instructions were left that on no account should this reserve party leave unless from absolute necessity. Burke and Wills then pushed forward into the unknown land, and a fearful journey they had in penetrating the vast wilds of the interior. But they were rewarded for all their toil and peril by penetrating the wilderness of the interior until they successfully reached the shores of the Gulf of Carpentaria early in February, 1861. The mystery was solved. The astounding feat which mortal man had never before succeeded in performing, of passing through that vast continent from south to north, was accomplished; all the important ends of the expedition were gained; and with thankful hearts they turned their faces again to the south, homeward bound.

BURKE SAID TO HIS COMPANION, "I CAN GO NO FURTHER."

The return journey was a series of terrible mistakes and calamities. When, on the 21st of April, faint and exhausted, they reached Cooper's Creek where they had established the depôt and had left a company to await their return, they found the place deserted—the men had that very day set forth to return to the Darling! The ample supply of provisions that they hoped to find had gone, and there was nothing for them, in their weak and exhausted state, but a small supply of flour, oatmeal, sugar and rice. These scant provisions dwindled away, and their strength grew daily less and less, until there came a day when Wills penned a pathetic letter to his father, commencing "These are, probably, the last lines you will ever get from me. We are on the point of starvation, not so much from absolute want of food, but from the want of nutriment in what we can get. . . . I think to live about four or five days. My spirits are excellent. . ."

Meanwhile Burke and John King, one of the bravest of explorers, having a greater reserve of strength than their comrade Wills, set forth in search of aid from natives believed to be encamped at no great distance from them, leaving with Wills the little provisions that remained. While they were absent, Wills, alone in the wilderness, without a soul to cheer his last moments, died from exhaustion at the age of thirty years.

Burke and King did not travel far together, and every step was torture to the intrepid Burke. Only a night or two after leaving Wills, Burke said to his comrade, "I can go no further. I hope you will remain with me here till I am quite dead—it is a comfort to know that someone is by ; but when I am dying it is my wish that you should place the pistol in my right hand and that you leave me unburied as I lie." In the early morning he had passed away. King only stayed for a few hours by the side of his dead chief, and returning to where Wills had been left, he found him in the calm sleep of death. Then this solitary survivor plunged into the wilderness to cast in his lot with the natives until relief should come.

In Melbourne great anxiety was felt, and a search expedition for the missing explorers was organised and placed under the leadership of Mr. A. W. Howitt, son of the well-known William and Mary Howitt. Success attended the labours of the expedition, and John King was discovered on September 15th in a condition when a few hours would, to all appearances, have put an end to his sufferings. Mr. Howitt wrote, "I found King sitting in a hut which the natives had made for him. He presented a melancholy appearance—wasted to a shadow and hardly to be distinguished as a civilised being but by the remnant of clothes upon him. He seemed exceedingly weak, and I found it occasionally difficult to follow what he said." King came back with Mr. Howitt to Melbourne, where he received a tremendous ovation and was crowned with honours and rewards. One of the handsomest monuments in Australia is that in Melbourne to the memory of Burke and Wills.

Passing by the valuable, though minor, expeditions of Babbage, Warburton, and Frank Gregory, we come to the great journey of John McDouall Stuart. In 1859 he commenced a series of explorations, and on the 20th of April, 1860, reached the very centre of the continent. On a hill of considerable altitude he reared a pile of stones on which he planted the Union Jack, naming the eminence Central Mount Stuart. The farthest point reached on this journey was about the 19th degree of south latitude, or about 1,300 miles from Adelaide, in a straight line, and about 300 miles from the north-west coast of the Gulf of Carpentaria. Circumstances made it impossible to proceed further at that time, but in January, 1861, Stuart started from Chamber's Creek at the head of a strong party well equipped, and succeeded in crossing the continent and reaching the shores of the Indian Ocean at Port Darwin. Before setting out on his return journey across the continent, he had an open space cleared, where he planted a flag and buried in an air-tight case, at the foot of a tall tree, the following notice :—

"South Australian Great Northern Exploring Expedition.

"The exploring party under the command of John McDouall Stuart arrived at this spot on the 25th of July, 1862, having crossed the entire continent of Australia from the Southern to the Indian Ocean, passing through the centre. They left the city of Adelaide on the 26th of October, 1861, and the most northern station of the colony on the 21st of January, 1862. To commemorate this happy event they have raised this flag bearing his name. All well. God save the Queen ! "

Stuart's discoveries led to the "Great Northern Territory" being added to South Australia by the Home Government, and also to the construction of the overland telegraph line, and to the settlement of thousands of square miles of country in the interior, which was not previously known to be suitable for grazing purposes. Some idea of the gigantic work of constructing, in a little less than two years, the two thousand miles of telegraph through an almost unknown country, uninhabited except by aborigines, may be gathered from the following account given at a great banquet in his honour at

Adelaide, by Mr. C. Todd, to whom the entire supervision of the work had been entrusted. He said, "The first pole was planted at Port Darwin about the 20th of September, 1870, and at Port Augusta about the beginning of October in the same year. On the 22nd of August, 1872, notwithstanding all the serious delays and difficulties in the Northern Territory, the line was opened, so that in the interval of one year and eleven months, besides the explorations from sea to sea, we had to cut, prepare, and cart about 36,000 telegraph poles, weighing 5,000 tons, carting them an average distance of eight or ten miles, and a maximum distance of 350 miles; a larger number of iron poles, imported from England, being carted an average distance of 400 miles, and a maximum distance of 560 miles. Besides this, we had to transport some 2,000 tons of other materials to the interior, and drive several thousand sheep and cattle distances averaging 500 miles, and extending to 1,300 miles north from Port Augusta; to cut and clear tracts fifty feet wide, through some 500 miles of forest and scrub; to cart building materials, instruments, batteries, and other stores for stations; to build a stone station of twenty-two rooms at Port Darwin; stone or wooden stations of seven or eight rooms at eight other places; to sink wells, establish depôts, and a variety of other things involving great labour and thought. . . . In addition to what has thus been attained, a fine but almost unknown river (the Roper) has been navigated by large ocean steamers like the *Omeo* and *Tararua* for ninety miles from its bar."

By the time the telegraph line had been erected, settlements had sprung up throughout the whole coast of Eastern Australia, and there only remained the western desert to be explored. This was effected in two journeys by John Forrest between 1868 and 1874, who penetrated from West Australia as far as the central telegraph line; while, between 1872 and 1876 Ernest Giles performed the same feat to the north. Quite recently, in 1897, these two routes were joined by the journey of Mr. Carnegie, who crossed Western Australia from south to north.

Landseer.

MAN PROPOSES, GOD DISPOSES.

CHAPTER XXXVIII.

THE MARCH OF EVENTS.

1852-1875.

THE Story of the Sea—the busy highway of the nations, with its enormous traffic, its conquests and commerce—has an absorbing interest for all Englishmen. Every year millions of people and countless millions of wealth, cross it from one part of the world to another in ease and comfort, with marvellous punctuality, and, as a rule, in perfect safety. Nevertheless, every year the wreck chart shows an appalling loss of life, and in the years now under consideration there occurred some of the most notable shipwrecks of the century.*

On the 2nd of January, 1852, the West India steamship, the *Amazon*, sailed from Southampton on her first voyage. Two days later, when about 110 miles W.S.W. of Scilly, and the wind blowing half a gale, a fire broke out, and despite tremendous and heroic efforts to stay its ravages, it spread with such rapidity and force that many were burnt in their berths, others were suffocated, and a great number drowned in attempting to enter the boats. Over one hundred and forty lives were lost, Mr. Eliot Warburton, the well-known author of the "Crescent and the Cross," being among the number.

In the following month (February 26th) the steamship *Birkenhead*, conveying troops to the Kaffir War, struck upon a rock in calm weather off St. Simon's Bay on the coast of South Africa. Within twenty minutes she broke into three pieces and went down. Captain Wright, of the 91st, wrote:—"The order and regularity that prevailed on board from the time the ship struck until she totally disappeared, far exceeded anything that I thought could be effected by the best discipline. Every one did as he was directed, and there was not a murmur nor a cry among them till the vessel made her final plunge." Of 638 officers, seamen, soldiers, and boys on board, 454 were drowned:—

"And though no stone may tell
Their name, their worth, their glory,
They live in hearts that love them well,
They grace Britannia's story."

Among other terrible wrecks the most memorable are those of the *Royal Charter*, the *London*, and the *Captain*. The *Royal Charter* was on her homeward journey (October, 1859), when she was overtaken by a terrific storm in Redwharf Bay, near Anglesea; the chain cables parted, and the doomed vessel struck the sharp-pointed rocks in four fathoms water. There she thumped until a tremendous wave broke her in two amidships, and the number who perished reached the frightful total of 459. The *London*, in January, 1866, was outward bound, and soon after the start encountered such heavy storms and seas that the captain determined to put back to Plymouth, but a huge sea broke on board and the fires were submerged. Then sails were set to keep her before the wind, but they were torn into ribbons; cross seas with tremendous force broke over the ill-fated ship, and notwithstanding the almost superhuman efforts of passengers

* See Wreck Chart, page 332.

and crew at the pumps, she continued to settle down until at length she threw up her bow into the air and sank beneath the waves. Two hundred and twenty lives were lost, among the dead being Mr. Gustavus V. Brooke, the tragedian, the heroic Wesleyan minister the Rev. Daniel Draper, and Dr. Woolley, the principal of Sydney College.

In September, 1870, the *Captain*, a six-gun turret-ship—one of the finest and most costly of our ships of war, built on a new plan under the direction of Captain Cowper Coles, was on her way with other ships of the fleet—eleven ships in all—to an appointed rendezvous off the coast of Spain. One night a furious gale set in, and when the morning dawned only ten ships out of the eleven composing the squadron, could be seen from the Admiral's vessel. The *Captain* had foundered, completely overturned, and with her went down above five hundred men, "all of them belonging to the naval service, and many of them distinguished by professional or scientific acquirements or by important services."

On the coasts of our rock-bound island, wrecks, more or less terrible, are unhappily of very frequent occurrence, and a glance at one of the wreck-charts issued by the Royal National Lifeboat Institution, compiled from the Board of Trade Register, will give a better idea of the extent of the mischief than bald statistics.

The Lifeboat Institution—one of the noblest institutions in our land—came into prominence in 1850, when the Duke of Northumberland—"the good sailor Duke"—became its president, and the Prince Consort one of the vice-patrons. Since that date it has been the means of saving over 35,000 lives from wrecks on our coast; it has "stations" all round our sea-board, with a splendid fleet of lifeboats that have been built with all the best and latest knowledge of modern science.

On the 13th of September, 1852, the Duke of Wellington, aged, but still vigorous and cheerful, took his usual walk in the grounds of Walmer Castle, inspected the stables, and gave instructions regarding a journey to Dover on the morrow. But on the morrow the rolling artillery as it thundered over sea and land told of the hero's death—he had journeyed to "the land that is very far off"—"the undiscovered country, from whose bourn no traveller returns."

In the palace and the cottage, by peasant and peer, the mourning was universal. The Duke represented to the British people not merely the great warrior-chief, or the invader of France, or the conqueror of Napoleon, but the embodiment of all the manly virtues of the British race. Tributes to his memory were paid by foremost men and women of every shade of politics, religion, and social position—none more glowing than that of the Queen, to whom the sad intelligence was conveyed while she was in Scotland.

She wrote:—"One cannot think of this country without 'the Duke'—an immortal hero! In him centred almost every earthly honour a subject could possess. His position was the highest a subject ever had; above party, looked up to by all, revered by the whole nation, the friend of the Sovereign; and how simply he carried these honours! With what singleness of purpose, what straightforwardness, what courage, were all the motives of his actions guided! The Crown never found, and I fear never will, so devoted, loyal, and faithful a subject, so staunch a supporter. . . . His experience, and the knowledge of the past were so great, too; he was a link which connected us with bygone times with the last century. Not an eye will be dry in the whole country."

The mortal remains of the Iron Duke were placed under the charge of a guard of honour until Parliament should meet to accord him a public funeral and interment in

St. Paul's Cathedral, beside his great compeer Nelson. For some days the dead chief lay in state in the great hall in Chelsea Hospital, and on one of those days over 100,000 people passed reverently before the bier.

The day of the funeral (18th of November) was observed as a closed day in business, and was kept with remarkable solemnity by the million and a half of people who lined the streets as the magnificent pageant passed. All the great powers of Europe, except

THE WELLINGTON MONUMENT, ST. PAUL'S.

Austria, sent representatives, and every man of mark in England who was able to do so, was present to pay his tribute of respect to England's greatest hero. On the following night, when addressing the House of Lords, Lord Derby said :—"When, amidst solemn and mournful music, slowly and inch by inch the coffin which held the illustrious dead descended into its last long resting-place, I was near enough to see the countenances of many of the veterans who were companions of his labours and of his triumphs, and was near enough to hear the suppressed sobs, and see the hardly-checked tears, which would

not have disgraced the cheeks of England's greatest warriors, as they looked down for the last time upon all that was mortal of our mighty hero. Honour, my lords, to the people who so well knew how to reverence the illustrious dead! Honour to the friendly visitors—especially to France, the great and friendly nation, that testified by the presence of their representative their respect and veneration for his memory! They regarded him as a foe worthy of their steel. His object was not fame nor glory but a lasting peace. We have buried, in our greatest hero, the man among us who had the greatest horror of war."

During a part of the year 1852 there was a feeling of great insecurity and unrest throughout the country. France was in a seething commotion. The intentions of the Prince President were obviously to obtain an Imperial throne, and, as a matter of fact,

ROYAL YACHT "VICTORIA AND ALBERT" AT CHERBOURG IN 1897.

before the year closed, he was proclaimed Emperor of the French. The impression on almost every mind was that he would continue the traditions of the great Napoleon in hatred to England, and would endeavour to avenge Waterloo. Then there was a universal cry for greater strength in our national defences, and preparation for war. It was under these circumstances that the Volunteer Movement was talked about, and the Militia was put upon an improved footing. But public events took an unexpected course, the Crimean War ensued, Napoleon III. became "our faithful ally," and the Volunteer Movement ceased to command much attention.

In May, 1856, the great National Thanksgiving for the restoration of peace, after the horrors and shames of the Crimean War, was celebrated in London and throughout the country. Within a year a feeling of insecurity again began to manifest itself in

consequence of persistent allegations that the national defences were insufficient, and in consequence, the Victoria Rifles and one or two other corps, were formed. It was not, however, until 1859, when France was claiming our assistance in her struggle with Austria, and the English Government insisted on "a strict and impartial neutrality" that the distrust of the intentions of the French Emperor again became intense. The development of the arsenal at Cherbourg was regarded with great apprehension, and when a powerful fleet assembled there it was taken to mean that an invasion of England would be attempted. Tennyson gave the signal for reviving the Volunteer Movement by publishing in the *Times* a so-called poem entitled "Form, Riflemen, form!":—

"Form! be ready to do or die!
Form! in Freedom's name and the Queen's!
True that we have a faithful ally
But only the Devil knows what he means."

In May, 1859, notice was issued from the War Office sanctioning the formation of Volunteer Rifle Corps, as well as of Artillery Corps in towns where there were forts or batteries. The movement spread with marvellous rapidity throughout England and Scotland, and within a year or two many thousands of volunteer riflemen were enrolled. At the same time there was a great popular movement in favour of National Defence, which found expression in Palmerston's Fortification Scheme and the resolution of the Cabinet to spend £9,000,000 sterling in carrying into effect the recommendations of the Royal Commission on National Defence.

In 1860 the whole volunteer force of the country numbered 133,342 men, and in that year the National Rifle Association was formed, which inaugurated those great yearly meetings held, till 1889, at Wimbledon (and since removed to Bisley, near Woking), where many thousands annually competed for prizes.

The result of the Volunteer Movement as originated in 1859 has been of incalculable advantage to our country and also to our colonies, which depend mainly on volunteers as a defensive force. It has given us a second line of defence; it has encouraged fine marksmanship and competitive skill; it has sustained and strengthened the national character, and it has achieved an importance without precedent in the history of similar martial movements. One of the most brilliant chapters in the history of our country is that of the zeal and patriotism of our noble volunteers in the terrible Boer war in the last year of the nineteenth century.*

Up to the year 1856 no English sovereign, it is said, ever decorated an Englishman for being brave. France had its Legion of Honour, instituted by Napoleon I. in 1802, when he was First Consul—a military and civil order established for the purpose of recognising distinguished services whether by Frenchmen or by foreigners. The Queen observed the anomaly during the Crimean War of the soldiers of the two nations

* It is to be hoped that the day will never come when Volunteering will decline, and it may not be out of place to give a few reasons not only why this should not be the case, but why every young man, in a position to do so, should become a volunteer. The general question of its advantages to the individual was well put forward by the late John Macgregor ("Rob Roy"), for some time Captain in the London Scottish. He said that the mere fact of wearing a uniform has as good a moral effect on a soldier as the academic costume of the Universities has on a man of letters, and that habits of control formed in uniform are sure to affect the same man in plain clothes; that it is a good thing for a man to be drilled, to keep silence when he wishes to talk, to give a loud and prompt command in public when shyness would keep him silent; to be ordered this way when he would like to go that, to have, in fact, another's will as his rule; and to engage in all this, not as a pastime, but for a serious purpose and under the law. He is exercised in temper, patience, promptitude, obedience, punctuality, and smartness, and he finds that success is attained on principles, and these are thereby strengthened within him. He becomes more patriotic, loves Queen and country better than he ever did before, and his respect for the regular army warms to admiration. A lower aspect of the case is this: the health of a young man is almost always improved when he is a volunteer. He learns to stand erect, he is taller when he is drilled, he becomes more supple when he learns to wield a sword, to handle a rifle, to box, to fence, to sing, to walk, to leap, to run. He goes out on breezy hills to shoot, and he never had so many country walks before.—"John Macgregor ('Rob Roy')," by Edwin Hodder, pps. 239-41.

fighting side by side, some with the highly-coveted Legion of Honour on their breasts, and others without any special decoration, and she instituted by Royal Warrant on the 29th of January, 1856, the Order of the Victoria Cross "for soldiers and sailors of any rank for a single act of bravery in the presence of the enemy."

The decoration, devised by Her Majesty, is a Maltese Cross wrought in simple gun-metal, bronze coloured, with the royal crest in the middle, and below, the words "For Valour;" in the centre of the reverse the date of the act of heroism is inscribed, and on the bar to which the ribbon is attached, the name of the individual and of the corps or ship to which he belongs. The Victoria Cross carries with it £10 a year pension for each non-commissioned officer and private, with a further annuity of £5 for every additional bar, such bar being added upon each fresh act of bravery equal to the first.

VICTORIA CROSS.

One of the most interesting functions over which Her Majesty ever presided was on the 26th of June, 1857, when thousands upon thousands of people assembled in Hyde Park to witness her fasten with her own hands the decoration on the breasts of sixty-one Crimean heroes of all ranks and ages. Forty-seven were given to the Army, twelve to the Navy, and two to the Marines. This Cross links all men together; "it stands as a symbol of the highest that man as man can attain, it places the hearts and the generous impulses of all men on a common level, and the words 'For Valour' are as dear to the noble duke as to the humblest unlettered private."

At the commencement of the Crimean War (September, 1854) Napoleon III. was anxious to raise himself in the estimation of the European Courts by receiving some personal recognition from his English ally. An arrangement was therefore made that the Prince Consort should pay him a visit to inspect the summer camp of 100,000 troops near Boulogne. The Prince formed a higher opinion of the Emperor than was commonly entertained at that time, and was well pleased with his visit.

While the war was in progress (April, 1855) the Emperor conceived the idea of going to the Crimea to command the allies. This would have been most undesirable on every ground, and, to divert him from his purpose, it is alleged,* he and the Empress were invited to pay a visit to England. They were met at Dover by the Prince Consort on the 16th, and were received by the Queen at Windsor Castle, where they remained until the 21st. During this visit the Emperor was invested with the insignia of the Order of the Garter with great pomp and splendour. "It is one bond the more," he said to the Queen; "I have given my oath of fidelity to your Majesty and to your country." One of the functions that appeared to give the Imperial guests special pleasure was a visit to the Crystal Palace, at Sydenham, which had been opened to the public in June of the previous year.

* "Memoirs of an ex-Minister." Vol. II. p. 24.

QUEEN VICTORIA AT THE TUILERIES, AUGUST 1855.

Panquet.

On the 18th of August, in the same year, the Queen and Prince Albert, accompanied by the Prince of Wales and the Princess Royal, paid their return visit to the Emperor and Empress at Paris. It was claimed to be the first visit of an English Sovereign to Paris since Henry VI. was crowned there in 1430. There were splendid doings in their honour during the week the royal visitors remained in the capital—a municipal entertainment at the Hôtel de Ville, a ball at Versailles, "which, in magnificence, eclipsed everything since the days of Louis XIV."—and brilliant military displays. We have it on the authority of Mr. Greville, that "the Queen was delighted with everything, and especially with the Emperor himself," while Lord Clarendon, who was Minister in attendance, wrote to Sir George Grey that, "on personal and political grounds, the visit to Paris has afforded the highest gratification to Her Majesty."

In August, 1857, the Emperor and Empress paid a strictly private visit to the Queen at Osborne, where they remained for four days.

There was a threatened breach of the friendship in 1858. On the 14th of January, when the Emperor and Empress were on their way to the Opera, and had just entered the Rue Lepelletier, a body of assassins, led by Felix Orsini, an Italian refugee, threw three bombs at the Imperial carriage. Ten persons were killed outright, one hundred and fifty-six, including Orsini, were wounded; the carriage was blown to pieces, but the Emperor and Empress escaped as by a miracle. It was found that these fatal bombs had been manufactured in England, and the French press took up the matter with so much warmth that a hostile feeling arose against England for harbouring assassins. Count Walewski, Minister for Foreign Affairs, wrote to Persigny, the French Ambassador, in London, asking: "Ought the right of asylum to protect such a state of things to exist? Is hospitality due to assassins? Should English legislation serve to favour their designs?" and other inquiries to the same effect. This was but a feeble echo of the violent language heard in Paris, where a number of officers appealed to the Emperor to allow them "to destroy the infamous haunt in which machinations so infernal are planned." Lord Palmerston thought it was expedient to bring in a Conspiracy to Murder Bill, making persons who planned assassinations liable to penal servitude for life. This was opposed by Mr. Kinglake, but leave to bring in the Bill was carried. Outside Parliament there was a strong feeling against the measure; it was thought that "Palmerston was at his old game of truckling to France," and that France was trying to take advantage of us while our troops were engaged in suppressing and avenging the Indian Mutiny.

On the second reading of the Bill, Palmerston was beaten by a majority of nineteen and resigned; the new Government, under Lord Derby, entered into amicable explanations, and on the 12th of March Mr. Disraeli, leader of the House of Commons, announced that "the unfortunate misunderstanding which had recently existed between the two countries was now entirely terminated in a manner alike friendly and honourable, and which would be as satisfactory to the feelings, as it was conducive to the interests, of the two countries."

The last visit of the Emperor to England was on the 20th of March, 1871. It was after Sedan, and after he had been deposed and denounced by the National Assembly, amid enthusiastic cheers, as "responsible for all the misfortunes, the ruin, the invasion, and the dismemberment of France." He received a sympathetic reception, took up his abode at Chislehurst, in Kent, and lived a quiet retired life there till January, 1873, when death ended his chequered and eventful career. Sorrow riveted still closer the

ties of affection that bound together the hearts of the widowed Queen of England and the widowed Empress of France, and to the end of the century they were on terms of truest affection and intimacy.

Among other distinguished visitors who turned the heads of the people and were received with more or less of enthusiasm, was the Sardinian King, Victor Emmanuel, who, for reasons of his own, had joined England and France in the Crimean War. He arrived in this country in December, 1855, was much fêted, and was invested by the Queen with the Order of the Garter. "It was amusing," says Greville, "to see all the

CAMDEN PLACE, CHISLEHURST.

religious societies hastening with their addresses to him, totally forgetting that he is the most dissolute fellow in the world; but the fact of his being excommunicated by the Pope and his waging war with the ecclesiastical power in his own country covers every sin against morality, and he is a great hero with the Low Church people and Exeter Hall."*

The enthusiasm which accompanied the visit of Garibaldi in 1864 has never had a parallel in this country. From the 3rd of April, when he landed at Southampton, to the 22nd, when he sailed with the Duke of Sutherland in his yacht, to return to the island

* Greville "Memoirs." Part III. p. 303.

of Caprera, enormous crowds welcomed their ideal hero, and wherever he went fêtes, concerts, visits, high functions of various kinds, followed in rapid succession, and during the whole time he was here the people scarcely left off cheering.†

GARIBALDI.

In some respects the visit of the Shah of Persia in 1873 put all other royal and imperial visits in the shade. Not that he created any enthusiasm on his own account, but the wildest rumours had heralded his coming. Some had said that he would bring all his wives and all his Cabinet Ministers with him; some alleged that he would spend a million of money in this country; most people thought he would always appear dressed from head to foot in diamonds. When he arrived, an enormous and very unnecessary fuss was made on the semi-barbarian's account, and a series of magnificent entertainments were given to him, but the roaring crowds only cared for his diamonds, and regarded him with much the same kind of feeling they would have regarded any other "lion" or raree show. Long-suffering royalty bore with him until, to the relief of everybody, he embarked at Dover for Paris.

Crime and financial disaster are not pleasant subjects to dwell upon, but there was an epidemic of them during the period we have under consideration, and no "life of a century" would be complete that did not glance at a few typical and, perhaps, suggestive instances. In 1855 Messrs. Strahan, Paul and Bates, bankers, were tried for appropriating to their own use certain bonds of the value of £22,000. All the prisoners were highly-educated men, and moved among the upper circles of society, and the sentence passed upon them was the severest that could be inflicted, namely,

† A good story is told in relation to the Dowager-Duchess of Sutherland, who was one of his most enthusiastic admirers. At a party at Stafford House one of the company said to another, "The Dowager-Duchess is noble, richly endowed, romantic and a widow. Why does she not marry her hero?" "You forget," said the other, "that he has a wife living." "That," said another guest, alleged to have been Lord Palmerston, "is of no consequence; I have Gladstone here, and can easily get him to *explain her away*."

transportation for a term of fourteen years. In November, 1856, a man named Robson was tried for larceny and forgery upon the Crystal Palace Company, in whose service he was employed. The gross amount of money appropriated by him was £27,000. He was found guilty and sentenced to twenty years' transportation for the larcenies and fourteen years for the forgery. In the same month the enormous frauds of the notorious Leopold Redpath on the shareholders of the Great Northern Railway were discovered. He had charge of the stock register of the Company, and his system of robbery had been to alter the sums standing in the names of well-known shareholders to a much larger amount, and to sell the surplus stock thus created. The discovery of discrepancies led the directors to appoint a committee of investigation, when it was found that a quarter of a million sterling had been misappropriated. Redpath fled to Paris, but on his return to London was arrested, brought to trial, and sentenced to transportation for life.

One morning in February, 1856, a dead body was discovered on Hampstead Heath. At the inquest it was found to be the body of John Sadleir, M.P. for the borough of Sligo, who had committed suicide by poison. It was also ascertained from evidence produced that he had been concerned in gigantic frauds, one in connection with the Royal Swedish Railway involving the amount of £150,000, the others in respect to the Tipperary Bank, of which his brother, James Sadleir, M.P. for Tipperary, was manager, to the amount of £400,000. The misery caused by these infamous transactions was incalculable, and large numbers of the depositors and shareholders, mostly farmers and tradesmen, were ruined. In a letter written by John Sadleir on the eve of his suicide he said "No one has been privy to my crimes: they have sprung from my own cursed brain alone." Notwithstanding this, his brother, James Sadleir, absconded; warrants were issued for his apprehension charging him "with divers frauds and fraudulent practices," but he had disappeared, and on the 19th of February, 1857, "the honourable member for Tipperary" was formally expelled from the House of Commons.

In that year there was great depression of trade, mainly consequent upon the Crimean war, the failure for some millions of the Western Bank of Scotland, the embarrassment of American railways, and the failure of American banks;—in short, the derangement of the monetary system of the country was so great that the Bank of England was placed in an extremely difficult position. "On Wednesday, November 18th, when the accounts were made up, it appeared that there were in the Bank notes and gold to the value of £1,462,153, while the deposits that might at any time be drawn out amounted to £18,248,003. On the following day the liabilities of the Bank were upwards of £4,000,000 more than they had been in the preceding July, while its available sources were more than £4,000,000 less than they had been at that time. If, therefore, the Act of 1844 which regulated the issue of notes had been strictly carried out, the bank must have stopped payment. Under these circumstances the Government sanctioned the suspension of the Act in this respect, and the Bank at once issued notes for £180,000 more than the law permitted. Having done this necessary but illegal act, the Government determined to hold a December Session and ask Parliament to indemnify them for their unavoidable violation of the law." *

No excitement in commercial circles ever exceeded that of the 10th of May, 1866, when it became known that the old and respectable firm of Overend, Gurney & Co. Limited had suspended payment, and no city man will ever forget the panic of the

* Molesworth's History, Vol. III., page 117.

following day, "Black Friday," when every kind of security was shaken and the Bank rate went up to 10 per cent. The liabilities of the firm were stated to be the enormous sum of £11,000,000. Disaster after disaster was reported, and bankruptcy after bankruptcy ensued. "First came the English Joint Stock Company for £800,000; then the great contracting firm of Peto & Betts for £4,000,000; followed by Shrimpton, the railway contractor, for £200,000; the Imperial Mercantile Credit Association whose

THE ALBERT MEMORIAL. *Photochrom Co.*

paid up capital was £500,000 and the Consolidated Discount Company for £250,000. Close upon midnight of that same day, as the result of splendid promptitude and decision, Mr. Gladstone announced in the House of Commons that the Government had decided to suspend the Bank Charter Act. It was a most welcome relief, and succeeded in allaying the panic and restoring public confidence, although many disastrous failures followed in quick succession. It was a long time before the country recovered from the shock; and the amount of private misfortune and loss of income, affecting directly or indirectly almost every family in the land, was lamentable.

The effect of many of these gigantic frauds and failures to which we have referred cannot be estimated. They brought sorrow and suffering, sometimes suicide and death, into thousands of homes, and in a vast majority of cases they brought it with the greatest intensity to poor widows, spinsters, half-pay officers, superannuated civil servants, and the thrifty who had invested their "little all" for some provision in their later days—the very people of all others who could least afford to part with a shilling.

One of the saddest days that ever dawned in the century was the Sunday that was ushered in by the tolling of bells, announcing the death of Prince Albert, the intensely loved Consort of the Queen. The heart of the nation stood still; a great wave of

Wilson, Photo.

INTERIOR OF MAUSOLEUM, FROGMORE.

sorrow passed over the land; the "shadow" of death seemed to enter every home. For the Queen, the light of her life had gone; her husband, friend, and counsellor, her chivalrous knight

> "Who reverenced his conscience as his king;
> Whose glory was redressing human wrong;
> Who spake no slander, no! nor listen'd to it;
> Who loved one only and who clave to her—"

had passed away.

The first intimation that the public had of the state of health of the Prince was on the 8th of December, 1861, when the Court Circular stated he was confined to his apartments by a feverish cold and pains in the limbs. On the 11th a bulletin told that he was suffering from fever unattended by unfavourable symptoms; and the announcement of his death came as a sudden and terrible surprise. The Prince was only forty-one years of age, and up to the time of this illness had enjoyed robust health.

He had fulfilled the programme he had sketched out for himself at an early date in his career * and his loss to the Queen was greater than words can tell. He was buried at Windsor on the 23rd of December, in the royal vault in St. George's Chapel, where he was to lie until the completion of the Mausoleum at Frogmore.

Tennyson wrote :—

We have lost him : he is gone :
We know him now : all narrow jealousies
Are silent ; and we see him as he moved,
How modest, kindly, all-accomplish'd, wise,
With what sublime repression of himself,
And in what limits, and how tenderly ;
Not swaying to this faction or to that ;
Not making his high place the lawless perch
Of wing'd ambitions, nor a vantage-ground
For pleasure : but thro' all this tract of years
Wearing the white flower of a blameless life.

Bedford Lemere, Photo.

WINDSOR CASTLE AND ST. GEORGE'S CHAPEL.

The sorrow of the Queen cast a shadow over everything. The great Exhibition of 1862, which had occupied so much of the time and thought of the late Prince, was opened on the 1st of May, and was a mournful ceremony ; the quiet departure of the Prince of Wales to the Holy Land incognito as Baron Renfrew ; the marriage in the Private Chapel at Osborne of Princess Alice to Prince Louis of Hesse-Darmstadt, all partook more of gloom than of gaiety.

* See page 281.

Sunshine came back on the 7th of March, 1863, when "a hundred thousand welcomes and a hundred thousand more," greeted the arrival in London of Princess Alexandra of Denmark, the affianced bride of the Prince of Wales—the most beautiful, the most graceful, and the most lovable lady that ever came to take up her abode in the land and in the hearts of the English people. The wedding took place with great pomp on the 10th, at St. George's Chapel, Windsor, the Queen looking down from a gallery over the altar on the marriage of her first-born son.

From that time forward many of the highest functions of state were performed by the Prince and Princess of Wales, who grew daily in the loyalty and affection of the people. It was soon found that the Prince of Wales was no ordinary man, the mere son of his father and of circumstance, but that he possessed the distinguishing qualities of geniality, discretion, affability, courtesy, and tact—and the greatest of these is tact.

SANDRINGHAM.

As sympathy with her great sorrow bound the hearts of the people more closely to their Sovereign, so, anxiety on behalf of the heir to the Throne made a place for him in the affection of the nation which he might not otherwise have so readily attained. In November, 1871, he was seized with a severe illness, which was found to be typhoid fever, the disorder that had proved fatal to his illustrious father. For many days his life was in extreme peril, and it seemed as though the whole nation had become one great family watching at his bedside. Never were bulletins waited for with more feverish anxiety, or information passed from mouth to mouth with more lightning speed. Throughout his illness he was nursed by the Princess of Wales and his devoted sister the Princess Alice, and twice Her Majesty and other members of the Royal Family were summoned to Sandringham. At length on the 14th of December—the

tenth anniversary of the day on which his father died—he began to rally, and the spell that bound the nation was broken ; but its sympathy with the Queen had "made a deep and lasting impression on her heart which could never be effaced."

On the 27th of February, 1872, the Queen, the Prince and Princess of Wales, and the rest of the Royal Family attended in state a solemn thanksgiving service in St. Paul's Cathedral. The day was celebrated as a national holiday, and orderly crowds, such as had rarely been seen before for multitude, lined the gaily decorated streets.

In 1862, consequent upon the failure of the supplies of cotton from the Southern States of America during the war of Secession, a terrible "cotton famine" caused widespread misery among the population of our great manufacturing centres. Before that time we had been accustomed to import large quantities of rice and tobacco from those

SANDRINGHAM CHURCH.

States, and our Lancashire cotton industry was mainly dependent upon them for its raw material. Gradually at first, and then more suddenly, the supplies stopped, and we had nowhere else to look to for material—India, Egypt, and other productive countries having scarcely begun to compete in the Manchester market. One after another the mills of Lancashire were closed for lack of stuff to keep them going. The operatives were thrown out of work sometimes at the rate of 10,000 a week, and, as the war showed no signs of coming to an end, the outlook was terrible. In that crisis party strife seemed to die away, and men of all opinions were bent on co-operating in whatever policy and measures were for the public good.

The climax of the distress was reached in December, when the "Relief Lists" showed a total of 500,000 persons dependent on the charitable funds (which had been

raised in all parts of the world) and the parochial funds. At that time the weekly loss of wages among the unemployed operatives was estimated at £168,000. Gradually, though in small quantities, cotton came in, and a few mills were enabled to run; many skilled artisans sought and found employment elsewhere, and emigration assisted to relieve the distress, so that by June, 1863, only 256,000 persons were receiving relief, and by the end of the year 180,000. "In one form or another, in voluntary contributions, rates, loss of wages, depreciation of fixed capital, business losses, Lancashire spent an aggregate of £12,445,000 in coping with the cotton famine. Lancashire, indeed, raised £1,400,000 of the voluntary contributions collected up to April, 1863, which came to £2,735,000." It is as curious as interesting to find that during the whole of this distressing time, when the suffering among the people was terrible, that no disturbance of any kind occurred, and never a word against the ruling powers of the day was sent forth from Lancashire; and that, so far as the health of the districts was concerned, the reports of the medical officers unanimously declared that, "apart from epidemic maladies, whose origin and progress was similar to those of other countries in which no distress existed, the health of the population was in a satisfactory condition, there being no ascertainable connection between the origin, character, or spread of these diseases and the distress."

Much anxiety was felt towards the close of 1865 owing to the outbreak of a cattle plague known on the continent as "rinderpest." It appears to have been brought into England by some cattle imported from Holland, and it spread with such alarming rapidity that the Government, cattle owners, and scientific men were taxed to the uttermost in designing means to restrict the malady. Before the end of the year 73,559 head of cattle had been attacked, out of which 55,422 had either died or been killed. By the strong and prompt measures that were taken the disease was eventually stamped out.

A worse mischief in some respects than the Lancashire cotton famine, or the cattle plague, was the rise and spread of Fenianism. The Irish Republican Brotherhood, known as the "Fenians,"* was organised for the purpose of freeing Ireland from English rule and founding an Irish Republic. The movement began in 1861 in America, where it had branches in every State. In 1863 it was established in Ireland, where James Stephens was "head-centre," and Jeremiah Donovan, better known as O'Donovan Rossa, the editor of the *Irish People*, was one of the principal agitators. Two risings were planned in Ireland, but they were both frustrated by the energetic measures of the British Government; the first in September, 1865, by the seizure of the office of the *Irish People*, where papers were found which revealed to the Government the whole plan of the conspiracy, and led to the capture of the ringleaders, Stephens, Dr. O'Leary, O'Donovan Rossa, and others. Stephens escaped, but O'Donovan Rossa was sentenced to imprisonment for life. The second rising, planned for February, 1866, was at once suppressed by the suspension of the Habeas Corpus Act in Ireland. An invasion of Canada, attempted in the same year, failed as signally as the attempt in Ireland.

In February, 1867, Chester was alarmed by a body of Fenians entering the town with the supposed intention of attacking the Castle and obtaining arms, but owing to

* Fenian is derived from *Fionn* or *Finn*, the name given to a semi-mythical class of Irish warriors famous for their prowess.

precautions taken by the military authorities and the police no attack was made. In March, the long-prepared insurrection broke out in Dublin, Drogheda, and Kerry, but the number of insurgents never exceeded 3,000, and although they did some incendiary mischief, they nowhere faced the troops sent after them. In September, Allen, Larkin, and Gould rescued "Captain" Kelly and "Captain" Deasy from a police van at Manchester and murdered Police Sergeant Brett, the officer in charge of the van. For this crime all three conspirators were hanged in the following month. In December an attempt was made to rescue the Fenian leaders who were confined in the Clerkenwell House of Detention, by blowing down the wall of the prison with gunpowder. Twelve people were killed, one hundred and thirty wounded, great damage was done to property and, as the explosion was heard not only over the whole metropolis but for many miles around it, all London was terribly frightened. An enormous number of men came forward and enrolled themselves as special constables to guard the public buildings in the metropolis.

In 1870 and 1871 two raids were again made on Canada, but both were complete failures, the first being repulsed by the Canadian volunteers, and the second suppressed by the United States Government. To-day our children ask us "Who were the Fenians?" in the same tone of voice in which they ask us to enumerate the wives of Henry VIII.

In the field of philanthropy the greatest activity prevailed, and many harvests were gathered in from seed sown in the earlier half of the century.

The claims of children employed in brickfields were for many years advocated by an eccentric and enthusiastic philanthropist, George Smith of Coalville, whose persistency at last obtained legislation on their behalf. His own early experience of life had been in the brickfields, and he once wrote :—"At nine years of age my employment consisted in continually carrying about 40 lbs. of clay upon my head from the clay heap to the table on which the bricks were made. When there was no clay I had to carry the same weight of bricks. This labour had to be performed almost without intermission for thirteen hours daily. Sometimes my labours were increased by my having to work all night at the kilns. . . On one occasion I had to perform a very heavy amount of labour. After my customary day's work I had to carry 1,200 nine-inch bricks from the maker to the floors on which they are placed to harden. The total distance thus walked by me that night was not less than fourteen miles; the total quantity of clay thus carried by me was 5½ tons. For all this labour I received 6d.!"*

Success crowned the efforts of George Smith to procure legislation, and on the 1st of January, 1872, thousands of little white slaves were set free by the coming into force of an Act prohibiting any female under sixteen or child under ten from being employed in the manufacture of bricks and tiles.

Lord Shaftesbury was still continuing his labours on behalf of the poor and oppressed in general and children in particular. An Act for regulating the labour of juveniles in workshops was passed, and another dealing with the iniquitous system of "agricultural gangs,"—the first statutory recognition of the rights of rural children to have equal educational privileges with the children of the towns—swept from the face of the land the last of the long series of evils in regard to the cruel employment of children that could be dealt with by industrial legislation.

* "George Smith of Coalville: The Story of an Enthusiast," by Edwin Hodder.

Among the greatest of social agitations was that for the housing of the poor. London was in a state of transformation, and sanitary scientists, in view of the herding together of enormous populations in the slums of Westminster, Holborn and elsewhere, recommended the pulling down of the "rookeries" that were the source of immense mischief to the health of London; and whole streets, and in some cases almost whole districts, were condemned. This raised the question of what was to be done for the accommodation of the working people who were to be dislodged, and for many years the question was before Parliament. Acts were passed for "The Encouragement of the Establishment of Lodging Houses" and for "The Inspection and Registration of Lodging Houses," the initiative having been taken by Lord Shaftesbury in the year of the Great

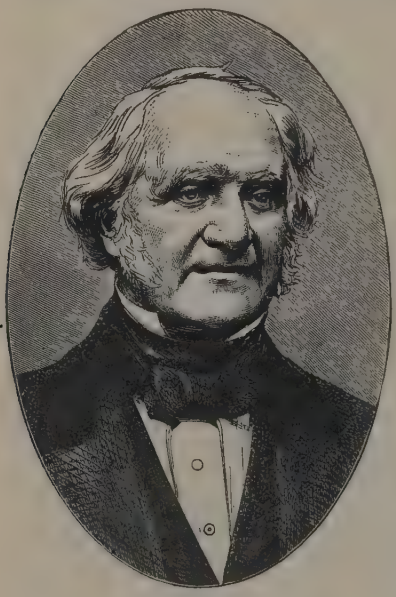
CHILDREN WORKING IN BRICKFIELDS.

Exhibition. Of these labours *The Times** said :—"To Lord Shaftesbury's legislation we owe the gratifying fact that these recesses are explored by authorised persons; that houses are no longer permitted to take in more than as many as can breathe properly in them; that lodging in cellars is prohibited; that the rooms are properly cleaned and whitewashed; that ventilation, lighting and drainage are provided for, and the furniture of the houses sufficient for the authorised number of lodgers. . . . It is a great result out of the very worst materials. To change a city from clay to marble is nothing compared with the transformation from dirt, misery and vice, to cleanliness, comfort, and at least a decent morality."

Excellent results followed the passing of these Acts. The question of the dwellings of the poor passed from individual care to companies, speculative societies, and finally into the region of "Imperialism," greatly assisted by organisations such as those

* *The Times*, 16th May, 1853.

originated by Sir Sydney Waterlow, Miss Octavia Hill, and others. Then came the great agitation of 1883-4, when the Royal Commission on the housing of the poor was appointed, with the Prince of Wales as its most active member, culminating in Lord Salisbury's Act of 1885—"The Housing of the Working Classes Act."

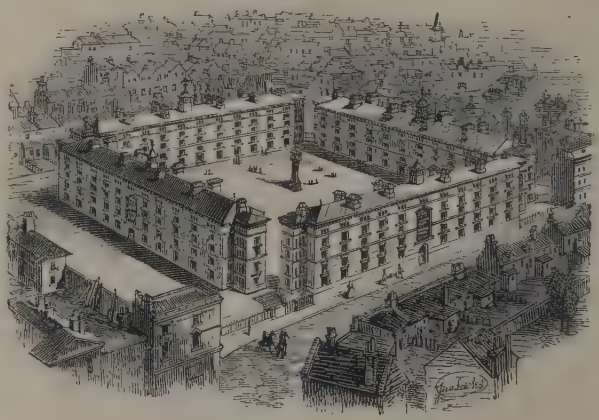


GEORGE PEABODY.

A great impetus was given to the construction of model lodging houses for the poor by Mr. George Peabody, an American merchant, who, in March, 1862, announced a gift to the poor of London of £150,000 to be placed in the hands of trustees and to be applied at their discretion to the construction of improved dwellings for the poor, which should combine in the utmost possible degree the essentials of healthfulness, comfort, social enjoyment, and economy. The sums given by Mr. Peabody were in 1862, £150,000; in 1866, £100,000; in 1868, £100,000; and in 1873, £150,000; making a total of £500,000.

While these efforts were being made for the accommodation of the poor in London, similar efforts were in progress for accommodating labourers and other working men in the country adjacent to London. A great boon for assisting them to obtain healthy homes outside the metropolis was the parliamentary enactment, introduced by Lord Derby in 1864, that on every railway leading into the metropolis provision should be made for the accommodation of the working-classes by cheap trains. The unceasing extension of the railway system had driven out of their homes many thousands of labourers, and it was contended that it was only just and proper that these railway companies should compensate them by giving increased facilities for going to and returning from their work. The principle has been largely extended, and is capable of still further extension and improvement.

In 1873 public feeling was much agitated by the revelations made by Mr. Samuel Plimsoll, M.P. for Derby, as to the perils of British seamen consequent upon the overloading of ships and the use of unseaworthy vessels. He first exposed the rotten condition of many of the coal-bearing coasters. In the six years previous to his entering Parliament as many as 6,357 coasting vessels had been wrecked, with immense loss of



FIRST PEABODY BUILDINGS

life. In 1868 the number of vessels in the regular carrying trade was 2,000, and the Board of Trade frankly stated that more than half of them were "unseaworthy, overladen, or ill-found vessels of the collier class." This led to the large question of merchant shipping generally. Mr. Plimsoll gathered information from all sources, and published in a book entitled "Our Seamen," a fierce denunciation of shipowners, whom he described as little better than murderers. His revelations of the cranky coffin-ships, insured far above their value for the purpose of being lost, stirred up the feeling of all right-minded people. The whole conscience of the country woke up to the fact that our seamen, in ever increasing numbers, were being annually consigned to a watery grave by unscrupulous capitalists. The immediate result of his efforts is best stated in his own words:—"Under one short Act passed in 1875, confirmed and extended in 1876, nearly five

A COFFIN SHIP.

hundred vessels, every one of them as rotten as a pear, were broken up, and a vigilant supervision was exercised for a time over vessels leaving our ports as to draught of water and amount of freeboard or surplus buoyancy. And from June in 1876 to June 1883, no less than 832 ships were stopped when about to sail, were repaired, or had their loads greatly reduced." Among the many improvements that Plimsoll's efforts in Parliament procured were these:—that ships are no longer over-loaded as they were: Board of Trade inspection has thinned out the fleet of coffin ships; the risks from shifting cargoes and piled-up deck loads are greatly reduced; the seamen's food is better; crimping is given short shrift, and the payment of seamen's wages has been put upon a better footing; over-insurance and under-manning can no longer be practised with impunity. For these and other benefits the name of Samuel Plimsoll is honoured and beloved by every sea-faring man.*

* When the Merchant Shipping Bill was brought forward on July 22nd, 1875, Mr. Disraeli intimated that it was not the intention of the Government to proceed with it that year. This was more than the fiery and impetuous Plimsoll could bear. Addressing the Prime Minister he implored him not to send thousands of men to certain death by withdrawing the measure. Then, carried away by excitement, he walked up the floor of the House, and pointing to the Opposition Benches, cried "I will unmask the villains who have sent brave men to death."

A week was given to Mr. Plimsoll to express his regret for having transgressed the orders of the House, and at the expiration of that time, under the advice of his friend Lord Shaftesbury, he, "in no grudging spirit, but frankly and sincerely" apologised to the Speaker and the House.

In the religious world there was much excitement caused by the publication in March, 1860, of a volume entitled "Essays and Reviews" on religious subjects, written by six clergymen and one layman. The volume was condemned by Convocation, and occupied for a long time the attention of the Ecclesiastical Courts. One of the contributors was Dr. Temple, the head master of Rugby, afterwards Bishop of Exeter, and later, Archbishop of Canterbury.

Dr. Colenso, first Bishop of Natal, published a work on "The Pentateuch and the Book of Joshua," in which he called in question the historical accuracy of those books—as Dean Milman had done before him, but to a more limited extent. This brought Colenso into conflict with his ecclesiastical superiors, and he was deposed by the Bishop of Capetown. The decision of the Privy Council and the Court of Chancery were, however, in his favour, and he continued to officiate as Bishop. The prosecution of the Rev. Isidore Heath and other clergymen for the publication of works advocating rationalistic views, and of the Rev. Charles Voysey for publishing sermons under the title of the "Sling and the Stone"—a work which openly assailed every cherished belief of Christendom—brought, for many years, religious topics into the sphere of ordinary discussion. Meanwhile the great war of High and Low Church was proceeding—as we have told elsewhere.* So it happened that in the Church of England there were at that time six distinct schools or parties—the orthodox High Church, the Evangelicals, the Broad Church, the Rationalistic and Ritualistic Schools, and the Tractarians. Some good came out of the seeming evils;—the free and open Church movement was organised and successfully carried on, a better understanding of religious principles was effected, and in many instances the heterodoxy of yesterday has become the orthodoxy of to-day.

* See Chap. xxvi., page 336.

EXHIBITION OF 1862. SOUTH FRONT.

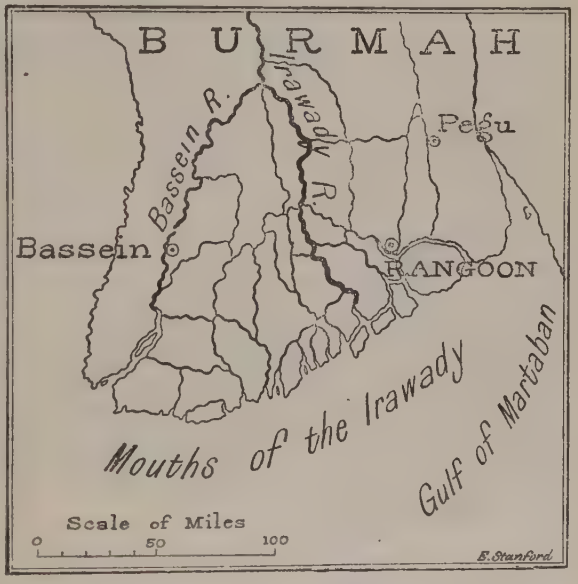
CHAPTER XXXIX.

SOME MINOR WARS.

1852-1875.

IN 1852 there was commenced an irritating and not very noteworthy war with the Burmese, who had committed various acts of hostility, and had maltreated British subjects. The details of the war are uninteresting. Suffice it to say that Rangoon was captured, Bassein was taken, and at the conclusion of the war the British possessions in Burmah were extended to include the whole province of Pegu.

At about the same time hostilities were taking place between the British and one or other of the Kaffir tribes, and a disastrous state of warfare continued for a year or two, the record of which will be found in a later chapter on South African affairs.



In February, 1856, a war was impending with Persia. In consequence of a difference with the Persian Court respecting the servants of the Embassy, the British minister quitted Teheran for Bagdad, and in the following October there was an open rupture between Great Britain and Persia. The Shah marched an army into Herat and took possession, an act that was in complete contravention of the reciprocal engagements entered into between the two Powers in 1853. War was at once proclaimed; a body of troops was sent from Bombay; the island of Karrack in the Persian Gulf was occupied without opposition by a British force under Major-General Stolker, and on the 10th of December the fortified town of Bushire was taken by Admiral Sir Henry Leek. A curious coincidence in the attack and capture of the town was that although the cannonading lasted for four hours, and the hull, masts and rigging of our ships were frequently struck by the enemy's shot, not a single casuality occurred to life or limb. In the following January (1857) General Sir James Outram, who had been sent from Bombay as Commander-in-Chief of the field forces in Persia, landed at Bushire with reinforcements. He defeated the Persians at Khooshab with a loss of 700 killed, and inspired so much terror by his victorious march that the Persians soon sued for peace; so soon, indeed, that after the treaty of peace was signed at Paris on the 4th of March, Outram inflicted a crushing defeat on the Persians at Mohammerah, taking possession of all

the tents and camp equipments and seventeen guns which the retreating force left behind them, before the news of the signature of the treaty had time to reach him. The terms of the peace were that Persia should never again interfere with the internal affairs of Afghanistan; should recognise the independence of Herat, and should receive back the British mission to Teheran with the necessary apologies and ceremonies. At the conclusion of the war, Outram and his noble coadjutor, Colonel Havelock, were able to give their invaluable services in the suppression of the Indian Mutiny then raging.

Just about the time of the outbreak of the Indian Mutiny difficulties arose in China which led to the

PLACARDS WERE POSTED AND HANDBILLS CIRCULATED.

Second Chinese War. In the speech from the throne at the opening of Parliament on February the 3rd, 1857, this ominous passage occurred: "Her Majesty commands us to inform you that acts of violence, insults to the British flag, and infraction of treaty rights committed by the local Chinese authorities at Canton, and a pertinacious refusal of redress, have rendered it necessary for her Majesty's officers in Canton to have recourse to measures of force to obtain satisfaction."

For some time the people of Canton, led by their truculent governor, Commissioner Yeh, had subjected the Europeans of the city to great annoyance and insult. Placards

were posted and handbills circulated for the purpose of stirring up strife and calling on the native people to expel the intruders. One of these documents concluded with the following words: "Hereafter, therefore, whenever any barbarian dogs come within our limits, we ought, by calling together our families, to maintain the dignity of our city (or province), and, bravely rushing upon them, kill every one. Thus may we, in the first place, appease the anger of Heaven, in the second give evidence of our loyalty and patriotism, and in the third restore peace and quiet in our homes. How great would be the happiness we should thus secure!"*

Mr. (afterwards Sir H.) Parkes, the newly appointed Consul at Canton, strongly remonstrated with the Commissioner, but could obtain no redress. Soon after this a boat or "lorcha," the *Arrow*, was boarded by Chinese officials, who carried off the twelve men constituting the crew on a charge of piracy. It was contended by the owners that the *Arrow* was a British vessel, and by the Chinese that it was a Chinese vessel. The British Consul demanded the release of the captured men, and his demand not being complied with, war with China ensued. As a matter of fact, the lorcha *Arrow* was not a British vessel at all, and complications of a most serious nature arose in China, and reacted upon the Government at home.

In 1856 our fleet, under Sir Michael Seymour, appeared before the walls of Canton and opened fire. Even this did not check the arrogance and obstinacy of Yeh, who issued another proclamation in these words:—"The English barbarians have attacked the provincial city, and wounded and injured our soldiers and people. Their crimes are indeed of the most heinous nature. Wherefore I hereby distinctly command you to join together to exterminate them, and I publicly proclaim to all the military and people, householders and others, that you should unite with all the means at your command, to assist the soldiers and militia in exterminating these troublous English villains, killing them wherever you meet them, whether on shore or in their ships. For each of their lives that you may thus take you shall receive, as before, thirty dollars. All ought to respect and obey, and neither oppose nor disregard this special proclamation."†

Sir Michael Seymour shelled the town, burnt a suburb, and destroyed a fleet of junks, but his force was altogether insufficient to occupy the place successfully, and he appealed to the Home Government for a further force of 5,000 men. The troops were sent in 1857, but, as we have seen in our account of the Indian Mutiny, they were diverted to India, where their presence was more necessary, and it was not until the Mutiny was at an end that they renewed their advance.

Hostilities were resumed in December, 1857; Canton was bombarded, and the town was stormed and captured. Commissioner Yeh, in deadly fear, fled for his life, but he got into cover too near to the scene of his exploits; here he was routed, and as he was in the act of vainly struggling to climb over a wall, a sailor seized him by his pigtail and made him a prisoner. He was sent an exile to Calcutta, where he died in the following year. In 1858 the Taku Forts on the Peiho river were stormed and taken, and the Chinese, having 'had enough,' the Emperor sued for peace, and obtained it on these terms:—By the Treaty of Tien-tsin, five new ports, including Formosa and Hainan, were to be opened to our trade, and British subjects with passports were to be admitted to any part of China. England and France were to have ministers at Pekin; Christianity was to be tolerated; the term 'barbarian' was no longer to be applied to Europeans in China; and a sum of money was to be paid towards our expenses in the war.

* Quoted in "China": By Professor Robert K. Douglas. 1899. † Ibid.

Exactly a year after the signing of this treaty, it was broken, or evaded, in almost every particular, and the Third Chinese War commenced. In 1859 the squadron, under Admiral Hope, was repulsed at the Taku Forts at the mouth of the Peiho river, which had been studded with heavy iron stakes and blocked by chains thrown from shore to shore. Entangled among these, the Chinese poured out a storm of shot and shell, fired, it was believed, by European gunners, with the result that three of our gunboats were lost, and 300 gallant men were either killed or wounded. An expedition was then organised in India, and General Sir Hope Grant arrived at Hong Kong in the autumn of 1860 with a force of 13,000 men, aided by a French force of 7,000 men under General Montauban—the French having a little matter to settle on their own account with the Chinese. The Taku Forts were stormed and captured, and, when the allied troops entered, a curious spectacle was seen. "Two thousand men were seated on the ground, who neither moved nor spoke. They had thrown away their arms, and had divested themselves of all uniform or distinctive badges that could distinguish them as being soldiers!" On the 6th of October the magnificent Summer Palace of the Emperor, near Pekin—the storehouse of his treasures—was ruthlessly plundered and burnt to the ground as an infliction of personal punishment for the murder of some British officials who were in negociation with the Chinese, and on the 12th, Pekin, the capital, surrendered to threats of a bombardment. Twelve days later the treaty of Pekin was signed, confirming the broken Treaty of Tien-tsin, ceding a district of the province of Canton, admitting a British Minister to the Court of Pekin, and paying a large sum of money. So ended a war that did not reflect over much credit on any of the contending parties.

From time to time since the signing of the Treaty of Waitangi, to which we have referred elsewhere,* troubles arose between the settlers in New Zealand and the Maoris, or aboriginal inhabitants. The Maoris are a brave, noble race, skilful in the arts of war, intelligent, and progressive. According to the statistics of 1859, the proportion borne one to the other of the male population of the northern islands of New Zealand was 22,000 British to 30,000 natives. The land—the birth-right of the Maoris—was divided in the proportion of seven millions of acres to the British and eighteen millions to the natives, but, of course, the superior intelligence of the British had been made manifest in the selection of their division; they had secured the best harbours, and the best positions; in short, they had received the one oyster as their share and the natives had received the two shells.

There was only one government. The British elected their responsible ministers and put them in office as their representatives. But these ministers had no power to interfere with the native race, in any way, by virtue of the functions delegated to them by their constituents. They were at liberty to make suggestions, offer advice, and make laws; but with the express proviso that their counsel need not be taken, and that the laws could not have force until sanctioned by the Government at home. That Government had entered into a solemn treaty with the natives, by which, in return for their allegiance, it guaranteed to them its protection and support; yet, practically, they had never, as a body, been under our law. Had they been allowed a separate Council—a competent tribunal for the investigation of their rights and liberties, and a local self-government, invested with powers similar in kind to those of the British—the footing upon which they stood would have been more intelligible to them; or, even had the settlers been allowed to legislate for and with them, and been intrusted with their interests, their position as British subjects would have been better understood. As it was, the Governors, as representatives of the Government, had to make promises which they were unable to perform—to use threats which they had no power to enforce—in short, their position with the natives was, that "their authority was not real, but merely nominal; that they governed merely by sufferance, and had to connive at what they were afraid to punish." The paternal relationship of the Governors to the Maories was greatly impaired by the growth of representative government. No chief had yet stood for a seat in the Assembly. It was not, therefore, with an altogether unreasonable jealousy that the Maories watched the increased organisations of the colonists, knowing, too, that their natural guardians were shorn of much of their power in reference to themselves.

The obligations due to her Majesty, and allegiance to her sovereignty were myths and mazes which the natives never clearly understood. They did not comprehend their position as British subjects, nor the relationship in which they stood to the Government; and imagined that there was one law for the white man and another for the Maori, when they should have been "all the same as one,"—nor was this altogether without foundation.

By dwelling upon this idea they at length came to regard the Government as their enemy; they saw the land, once indisputably their own, pass from their possession; they watched the rapid ascendancy of the British race, and jealously eyed the improvements and alterations wrought by the white man. Finally, they saw their own race fast losing power, and rapidly dying away, and the war that followed was a last struggle for deliverance from the foreign yoke, from which they had derived immeasureable

* See page 390.

advantages, but which they now regarded with suspicion, and were desirous of casting off for ever. The wish to revenge what they deemed injustice, and to free themselves from a power which treated them in their own land as alien and intrusive, was partly the result of their educational training. Like the Boers in South Africa they were wont to regard the old Testament histories as applicable to themselves. The wars of Israel, and the deliverances which were wrought for them, they took as typical of their own state. Gideon, for instance, represented their chiefs, and the Midianites the British.

Of course, the Maories could not form any clear idea of the relative strength of the two nations; all they perceived was that as man to man they were equal, if not superior, to the British. Many causes tended to foster in their imagination the idea that the aim of the Government was to secure all their land, and to drive them off tribe by tribe, until the whole should be absorbed or exterminated. They saw the increasing European population, the establishment of soldiery, and the encouragement given to the Volunteer Movement, and they naturally asked "Why all this preparation; why should settlers bear arms except to exterminate the Maories?" Hence arose the King Movement and the Land League, the former as a protection against encroachments upon their rights by Europeans, and the latter to preserve to themselves as a people all the land still remaining in their possession.

The crisis came in March, 1859, when a block of about 600 acres of land was offered for sale by a native named Te Teira, who surrendered it in the presence of the Governor and a large assembly of natives, amongst whom was Wiremu Kingi, a chief of great power and influence. Kingi opposed the sale of the land, alleging that the right to sell it was vested in himself and others, who were determined not to give it up. Te Teira persisted that the land was his by an indisputable title, which the Governor was willing to accept. A part of the purchase money was paid to Te Teira in November, and instructions were given to Mr. Parris, assistant Land Commissioner, "to take steps to make Wiremu Kingi and his natives aware of the Governor's firm determination to complete the purchase, and that he was to set about the necessary survey; but in case of any resistance being made, the survey staff was to retire, and he was to intimate to Lieutenant-Colonel Murray that the assistance of a military force was necessary, who was thereupon to take military possession of the block of land, and the survey be prosecuted under the protection of the troops."

The survey was resisted, but only by about eighty unarmed men. Immediately a proclamation of martial law was issued, to assert the Queen's sovereign authority against *natives in arms*; in accordance with the provision, "Should Wiremu Kingi, or any other native, endeavour to prevent the survey, or *in any way* interfere with the prosecution of the work, military force would be used, martial law proclaimed, and the volunteers called out into active service."

Up to this time the matter had been confined to those immediately interested in the sale and purchase of the land,—now, settlers had no option about entering into the quarrel, as all from the age of eighteen to sixty were compelled to do so, unless legally exempted.

The natives, headed by Wiremu Kingi, determined not to part with the disputed land. They had no legal and peaceable means of redress through any tribunal capable of entertaining their suit, and their resistance, instead of being treasonable or rebellious, had only for its object the assertion and maintenance of their own right to a particular

piece of land. A stockade was built upon the spot and a "pah" erected on the direct road to the camp. A notice was immediately sent to them in these words:—

"To the Chief who obstructs the Queen's Road.

"You have presumed to block up the Queen's road, to build on the Queen's land, and to stop the free passage of persons going and coming.

"This is levying war against the Queen! Destroy the places you have built, ask my forgiveness, and you shall receive it. If you refuse, the blood of your people be on your head.

"I shall fire upon you in twenty minutes from this time, if you have not obeyed my order.

(Signed) "T. Gore Browne."

"Camp, Waitara, 6th March, 1860."

War followed as a matter of course, and continued at intervals for nearly ten years. We have no space to give the details, but for a long time the natives held at bay all the force that was brought against them; they attacked our strongholds with bravery and daring; they drove away the settlers from outlying districts, plundered and burned their homesteads, drove off their cattle under the very noses of the troops, and, enriched with plunder, retreated, when they felt so disposed, into the fastnesses of the bush, where our men could not follow. There they planted potatoes, continued their ordinary occupations, and returned to the prosecution of the war at their own convenience. On our side we had the usual blunders occasioned by high military incompetence; fruitless expeditions to storm empty pahs (Native villages), and sometimes desperate encounters exhibiting dauntless courage. Nor can we enter into the details of the manner in which the war was conducted. We are, and always have been, in the habit of regarding as cunning in our enemies what we consider art in ourselves; that which we describe as ferocity in the natives is courage in our soldiers; and that which we deem strategy in war we look upon as treachery in a savage people. In the end, as a matter of course, the victory rested with the British, but it is to be feared the victory was that of might against right, as so many of our recent wars for the expansion of the Empire have been.

In the course of a debate in the House of Commons on the New Zealand question, Mr. Roebuck laid down the philosophical theory that "where the brown man and the white man meet, the brown man is destined to disappear." Happily this is not always so. A recent writer (*) says "The Maoris, though conquered, were unsubdued . . . though the Maori is represented in the House of Representatives and the Council, though he has rents from European tenants and schools from European rulers, yet the Maori is a Maori still. No union is possible between races so far apart in civilization and blood, and it remains to be seen whether they can peaceably dwell together in the land. Four years ago (1890) there were still upwards of 40,000 Maoris in the islands. No one who has seen them, or learnt anything of their history, can for a moment suppose that they will consent to be wiped out of existence without a struggle. They still hold ten million acres of their ancestral soil. The latest statistics seem to show that their decline in numbers has been decisively checked. There may yet be a Maori question in New Zealand."

Few great wars ever excited deeper interest than did the petty outbreak of negroes in Jamaica in 1865 and its vigourous suppression by Governor Eyre, the great Australian

* "The History of the Australian Colonies" by Edward Jenks, M.A. p. 291.

explorer of former days. It arose from an attempt of about 150 armed negroes to rescue a prisoner who was about to be tried at Morant Bay for a slight offence. A riot ensued, twenty-eight of the ringleaders were apprehended, and this caused general dissaffection to spread. The negroes fell on the white people indiscriminately, killed and mutilated whom they would, and committed other horrible barbarities. When Governor Eyre heard of it he judged that it was not merely a riot, but an organised revolution, and sent a large body of troops to Morant Bay and placed the whole county of Surrey (the city of Kingston alone excepted) under martial law. Then, proceeding in person to the scene of carnage, he inflicted swift and terrible punishments such as had never been inflicted by any constituted authority before, shooting and hanging the rioters for many days in succession. A large number of the persons concerned in the outbreak were "people of the Baptist persuasion," political demagogues, agitators, newspaper pressmen, and a few missionaries. One of the chief among this band was a coloured man named George William Gordon, a member of the House of Assembly and an eloquent preacher. Of this man Governor Eyre wrote, "I found everywhere the most unmistakable evidence that George William Gordon, a coloured member of the House of Assembly, had not only been mixed up in the matter, but was himself, through his own misrepresentation and

PORT MORANT, WEST INDIES.

seditious language addressed to the ignorant black people, the chief cause and origin of the whole rebellion. Mr. Gordon was now in Kingston, and it became necessary to decide what action should be taken with regard to him. Having obtained a deposition on oath that certain seditious printed notices had been sent through the post office directed in his handwriting to the parties who had been leaders in the rebellion, I at once called upon the Custos to issue a warrant and capture him. For some little time he managed to evade capture, but finding that sooner or later it was inevitable, he proceeded to the house of General O'Connor and there gave himself up. I at once had him placed on board the *Wolverine* for safe custody and conveyance to Morant Bay."

The unfortunate man Gordon was tried before two young naval lieutenants and an ensign in one of Her Majesty's West India Regiments — an illegal tribunal in an illegal place. He was condemned to death and was hanged two days after sentence had been passed, protesting to the last that he had taken no part in any conspiracy or organised insurrection.

KING STREET, KINGSTON, JAMAICA.

When the news of the outbreak and of the terrible vengeance that had marked its suppression reached England it produced an intense and unprecedented excitement; meetings were held to denounce the Governor, and meetings were held to applaud him; two distinct parties were formed, and controversy was never keener. If two men met in the street one would regard Governor Eyre as a hero, and the other as a fiend; one would assert that he had acted in violation of the law, and with callous disregard of the dictates of humanity, the other would consider that a second Daniel had come to judgment. The immediate result was that Governor Eyre was suspended, Sir Henry Storks was sent out to Jamaica in his place, and a Royal Commission was appointed to inquire and report on the whole affair.

On the 26th of March, 1866, the Commissioners finished their inquiry, and soon after furnished their report. They were of opinion that the disturbances had their immediate origin in a planned resistance to lawful authority, but the chief cause was not so much a desire to obtain land free as a want of confidence in the tribunals before which cases affecting their interests were tried. It was considered that if the insurgents had been temporarily successful the spread of the rebellion would have been attended with a still more fearful loss of life and property. They praised Governor Eyre for the skill, promptitude, and vigour with which he put down the rising, but condemned him for

continuing martial law longer than was necessary, for inflicting excessive punishments, for awarding the death penalty with unnecessary frequency, for sentencing people to be flogged with reckless barbarity, and for burning one thousand houses in a wanton and cruel manner.

The publication of the report produced an extraordinary excitement; rival associations, one for the defence of Eyre, and another for the vindication of Gordon and the negroes were formed, led respectively by such men as Carlyle, Ruskin, Tennyson and Kingsley on the one hand, and Mill, Herbert Spencer, Professor Huxley and Mr. Goldwin Smith on the other. In a published letter Carlyle expressed his view of the question as follows :—" For my own share, all the light that has yet reached me on Mr. Eyre and his history in the world, goes steadily to establish the conclusion that he is a just, humane and valiant man, faithful to his trusts everywhere, and with no ordinary

KINGSTON AND PORT ROYAL, JAMAICA.

faculty for executing them; that his late services in Jamaica were of great, perhaps of incalculable value, as certainly they were of perilous and appalling difficulty—something like the case of 'Fire!' suddenly reported in the ship's powder-room in mid-ocean, where the moments mean the ages, and life and death hang on your use or misuse of the moments; and, in short, the penalty and clamour are not the things the Governor merits from any of us, but honour and thanks, and wise imitation, should similar emergencies arise, on the great scale or on the small, in whatever we are governing." The controversy waxed stronger and stronger through weary months and years. On the 2nd of June, 1868, the trial of Governor Eyre commenced in the Court of Queen's Bench, ample funds having been raised both for the prosecution and the defence. Through some misapprehension, as has been alleged, Mr. Justice Blackburn delivered a charge which induced the Grand Jury not to find the Bill, and, of course, the strong indictments against Governor Eyre fell to the ground. As he had been put to ruinous

expense to defend himself against charges which were decided not to be illegal, the Conservative Government determined that he should be reimbursed from the public funds.

While the result of the Jamaica affair was pending, great anxiety was felt as to the fate of a number of British subjects, held in captivity by King Theodore of Abyssinia

Captain Cameron, our Consul at Massowah, had at one time been high in the favour of the despotic and semi-barbaric ruler, but subsequently incurring his displeasure, he was put in chains, and with him a number of Europeans, who, as missionaries, mechanics, or traders, had visited the country. Various attempts were made to obtain their release, and at length the Foreign Office sent a special envoy bearing a letter from Her Majesty to King Theodore. Mr. Hormuzd Rassam, a Syrian Christan and naturalised British subject, who had been employed for many years in various political offices in Turkish Arabia and at Aden, possessed all the qualifications needed in the bearer of a demand for the release of the captives. He was provided with suitable presents, and was accompanied by a suite among whom were Lieutenant Prideaux, a British officer, and Dr. Blanc, the Surgeon of the Aden Residency. On landing at Massowah they sent letters announcing their arrival and the object of their mission, but were kept for many months waiting for an answer from the King. Eventually Mr. Rassam got permission to proceed, and on arrival at the Royal Camp was graciously received. By his prudence, conciliatory demeanour, and knowledge of Oriental languages and customs, he soon became a great favourite with the King. At length, after many delays and disappointments, Consul Cameron and the other prisoners were made over to his care, but no long time elapsed before a change came over King Theodore's views—he wanted

LORD NAPIER OF MAGDALA (SIR ROBERT NAPIER).

more presents and a fresh batch of European artisans, and his friend Rassam must stay with him until they arrived in Abyssinia. It was from the first evident that the King's request was a despotic command from one who knew no law but his own will, and would brook no refusal. The demand was transmitted to the English Foreign Office, and so far complied with that a number of English artificers were sent out, but before they reached Massowah another change had come over the King, and he had added Mr. Rassam and his companions to the number of the captives. It soon became evident that these captives—who were being treated with savage cruelty—must be rescued by force, and an army of 10,000 men, under Sir Robert Napier, was equipped at Bombay for that purpose. The force landed at Annesley Bay, on the west coast of the Red Sea, early in April. With tremendous difficulty the troops made their way through a wild and mountainous country until they encountered the Abyssinian army, by whom they were attacked with splendid courage and spirit, but, as the Abyssinians were undisciplined

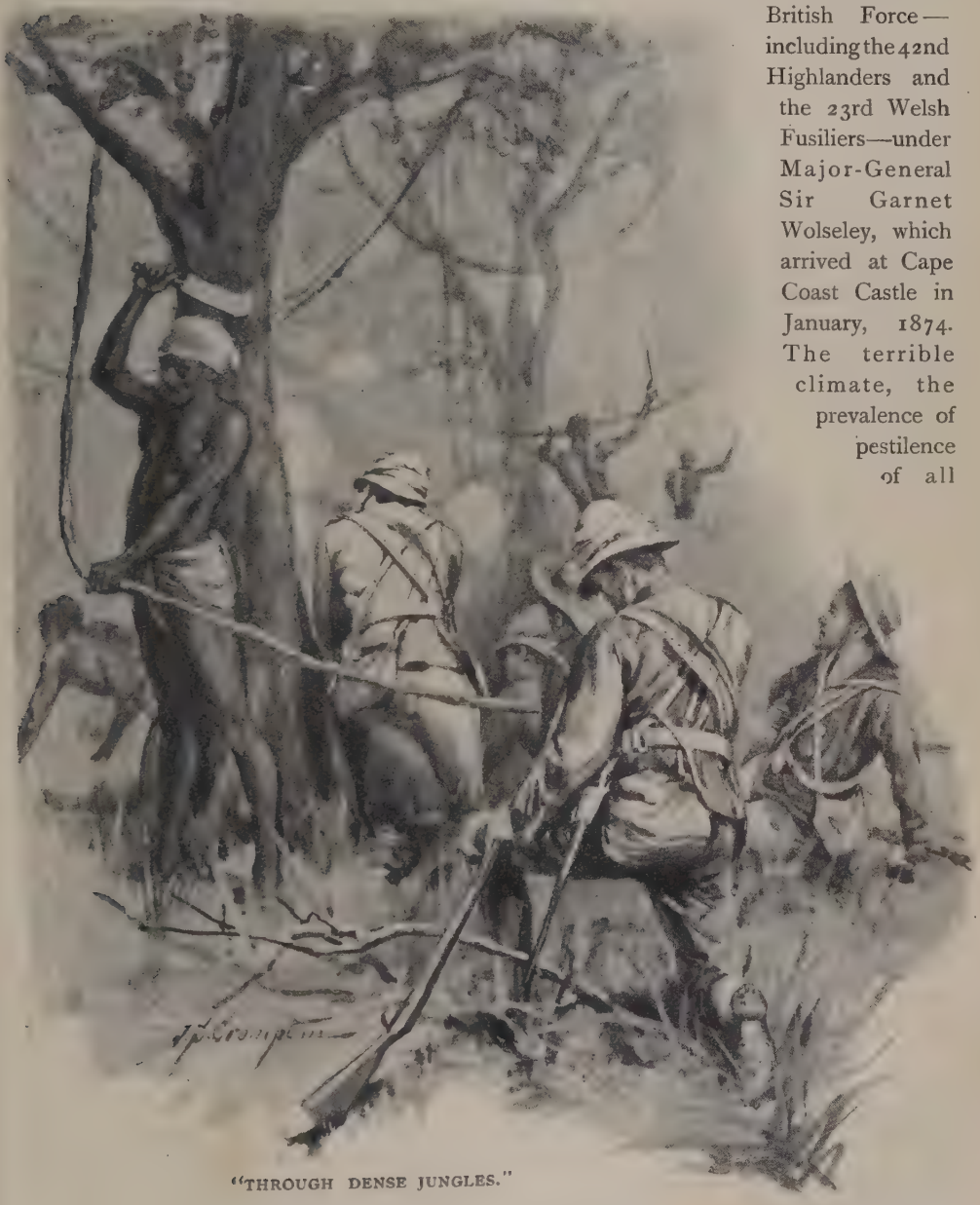
MAGDALA.

and imperfectly armed, they were easily dispersed. King Theodore, now in a state of alarm, sent back all the prisoners and sued for peace, but refused to surrender to the British. Sir Robert Napier then ordered an assault on Magdala, the stronghold of the Abyssinians, situated upon cliffs "so high and steep that it was said a cat could not climb them except at two points—one north and one south,—at each of which a narrow path led up to the strong gateway." Up that northern path our brave soldiers struggled, and stormed the rock fortress of the despotic monarch with such determination that in a short time the mighty gate at its entrance was forced and Magdala was captured. Just inside the gate was found the dead body of King Theodore who, defeated and in despair, had died by his own hand.

The thanks of both Houses of Parliament were voted to the army of Abyssinia, and its gallant commander was made Lord Napier of Magdala.

In 1874 a misunderstanding arose between this country and the King of the Ashantees, a fierce and warlike tribe on the Gold Coast of Africa. We had recently

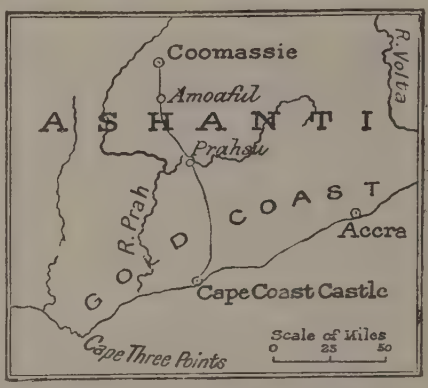
purchased from the Dutch certain possessions on the Gold Coast and this involved us in a quarrel which led to war. The King of Ashantee attacked these English settlements and threatened our possessions at Cape Coast Castle. At length it was deemed necessary to send out a British Force—including the 42nd Highlanders and the 23rd Welsh Fusiliers—under Major-General Sir Garnet Wolseley, which arrived at Cape Coast Castle in January, 1874. The terrible climate, the prevalence of pestilence of all



"THROUGH DENSE JUNGLES."

kinds, made it necessary that the campaign should be short and sharp; the great trouble was not the power of the Ashantees but sun and fever. The difficulties involved were enormous. Through dense jungles "where the air reeked with a steam like that seen in a freshly-watered hothouse," the force, including a naval brigade and some rocket batteries, pushed its way towards Coomassie the capital. "On January 20th the considerable

River Prah was crossed, and by the 31st the Ashantees, in great force, were encountered at a place called Amoaful. Our army of 2,500 men was assailed in front, both flanks, and rear, and the incessant stream of bullets from hidden enemies, counting at least ten to one against us, shook for a moment, it is said, even the nerves of the Highlanders. Shells, rockets, and Snider-bullets, followed by a well-timed bayonet charge, cleared the road at last, and drove the Ashantees, who had fought with great bravery, in headlong flight. After four more days of fighting, less severe in character, Coomassie was entered and burned by our troops, who immediately returned to the coast, and re-embarked before the dreaded rainy season set in. The result of the war was the complete discomfiture of the Ashantee nation, and the establishment of our power in West Africa, for the first time, on a solid basis, likely to prove beneficial to the natives."*



* Sanderson's "History of the British Empire," p. 399.

CHAPTER XL.

EDUCATION.

1832-1900.

THE year that saw the passing of the great Reform Bill was also the year of the first Parliamentary grant in aid of popular education. In 1832 Lord Althorp persuaded the House of Commons to vote £20,000 towards the building of schools, and the money was distributed by the Treasury through the National and British and Foreign School Societies. In 1839 a further advance was made by the Government. The administration of the grant was put into the hands of the President of the Council and four other of the Queen's Ministers, who formed a Committee known as the Committee of Council on Education, and this Committee, now absorbed by the Board of Education, was for sixty years the supreme authority in elementary education. Concurrently with the formation of the Committee it was decided that no school should be assisted by Government unless the managers allowed it to be inspected, and inspectors were for the first time appointed, clergymen being selected to visit the schools of the National Society, and laymen to visit the British schools.

The founder of the system begun in 1839 was a medical man, Dr. Phillips Kay, better known as Sir James Kay-Shuttleworth, who afterwards became Secretary of the Education Department. In the course of his practice he had observed the gross ignorance prevalent in many large towns, and had convinced himself that persistent efforts were needed to cope with it. He made a practical study of the educational methods followed in Holland, Prussia, and Switzerland, countries at that time far ahead of England in providing efficient teaching. Dr. Kay felt that our chief need was carefully trained teachers, and he advised the establishment of a State training college. To the proposal of a State college the Bishops strongly objected, and a grant of £10,000 was made to the National and British School Societies to enable them to establish colleges. But Dr. Kay was persistent, and with the help of Mr. E. C. Tufnell, set up a training school for pupil-teachers at Battersea, and so laid the foundation of the English pupil-teacher system. The school was a great success, and in 1842 received a grant of £1,000 from the Committee of Council. In the following year Dr. Kay, finding the superintendence of the school demanded more time than he could spare, handed it over to the National Society, who have managed it ever since.

In 1847, when the parliamentary grant had risen to £100,000, Lord John Russell proposed certain arrangements for encouraging voluntary contributions to State-aided schools, for improving the status of pupil-teachers, and for the better training of adult teachers. These proposals were obnoxious to many Nonconformists, who conscientiously objected to State interference with education, but opposition was overborne, and the Code of 1847, with certain modifications introduced from time to time, was continued for fourteen years,—and at the end of that period the annual grant for education, science, and art, had risen to £1,350,000. In 1858 a Royal Commission under the Duke of Newcastle was appointed to inquire into the state of popular education. The Commission

reported in 1861 that the system had reached one eighth of the population, and that the Government-aided schools were far more efficient than others, but that the attendance was very irregular and that not more than a fourth of the children left school fairly taught. The Commissioners condemned the plan of paying money directly to the teachers, and, in view of the annually increasing amount of the grant, they recommended that the schools should also be assisted by the county rate

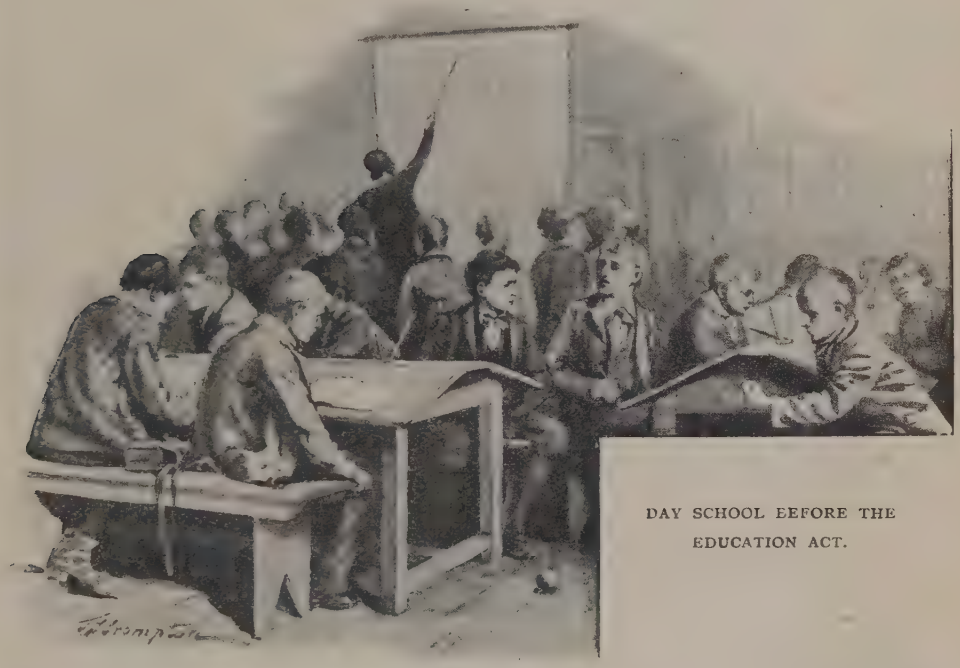
The report of the Commission fell into the hands of Mr. Robert Lowe, afterwards Lord Sherbrooke, at that time Vice-President of the Council, who dealt with it in a very drastic manner, and produced a Revised Code, the main feature of which was "payment by results." The amount of the grant to a school was to depend upon the number of scholars who passed a successful examination in what were popularly known as the three R's—reading, writing, and arithmetic. "I do not promise," said Mr. Lowe, "that the system shall be economical, or that it will prove efficient. But if it is not efficient it will be economical; and if it is not economical it will certainly be efficient." Mr. Lowe's Revised Code did not find universal favour, but it was adopted, and proved so far economical that there was a reduction in the parliamentary grant. It certainly did not injure the schools, but, except by making exisiting schools more efficient, it did little to advance the progress of education.

RIGHT HON. ROBERT LOWE.—LORD SHERBROOKE.

In 1869 there were in England and Wales about 11,000 Elementary Day Schools and 2,000 Night Schools, with 1,450,000 children on the registers and 1,000,000 in average attendance. The school population, *i.e.*, the number of children who should have been at school, was far in excess of these figures, and in some places the deficiency in attendance was very serious. It was quite clear that if the children of England and Wales were to be educated, the existing system was wholly inadequate; the fact had been long recognised and lamented, but the remedy had not been applied. In 1870 the subject was taken in hand by Mr. Gladstone's administration, and Mr. W. E. Forster, the Vice-President of the Council, succeeded in carrying through Parliament an Elementary Education Act, which provided universal compulsory Education, and will make its author's name ever memorable among the benefactors of his countrymen. The chief provisions of the Act may be briefly summarised: 1.—That by voluntary effort, or by the compulsory establishment of School Boards, sufficient schools should be provided for one-sixth of the population. 2.—That every elementary school should be taught by qualified teachers, should be conducted in accordance with the Code prescribed by Government, and should be subject to inspection. 3.—That in all such schools religious instruction should be given at the beginning or the end of the teaching, and that parents should be entitled to

withdraw their children from religious instruction. 4.—That in Board Schools no catechism or religious formulary distinctive of any religious denomination should be used. 5.—That the Education Department should not in future take any account of the religious instruction given in schools, and the Government Inspector should not examine in religious subjects.

Mr. Forster's Act also provided that when School Boards were appointed, they should be empowered to raise money for building schools and for other scholastic purposes by a school rate, which he unfortunately estimated would not exceed threepence in the pound, little foreseeing that in a few years the School rate in London would be more than four times the amount of his estimate, and that in some towns it would be two



DAY SCHOOL BEFORE THE EDUCATION ACT.

shillings in the pound. The Act also provided that there should be one School Board for the whole of London which should be elected by ratepayers of the then existing Parliamentary boroughs.

The Act gave a great and much needed impetus to the progress of education. To obviate the appointment of School Boards which were, and still are, regarded with pious horror by many excellent people, great efforts were put forth to supply the existing deficiency in schools by voluntary contributions, and new schools sprung up all over the country. In London, and in all the large towns, voluntary effort was impotent to do what was needed, and School Boards were elected, which set to work, sometimes with greater zeal than discretion, to build schools and to bring into the educational net those who had hitherto escaped teaching. Gradually the instruction given was improved and many subjects were taught which had once been considered quite beyond the range of Elementary Schools.

By Mr. Forster's Act, School Boards were empowered to make byelaws for the compulsory attendance of children at school, and in cases where the parents were too

poor to pay the fees the Boards could give free education. By a subsequent Act, School Attendance Committees were appointed to enforce attendance in places where there was no Board, and it was hoped that these arrangements would secure the presence at school of every child of school age. Measures were also taken to prevent the employment of uneducated children below a fixed age. But it was easier to pass Acts of Parliament and to frame bye-laws than to compel unwilling parents to send their children to school, and in too many instances the difficulty was increased by the reluctance of magistrates to inflict adequate penalties upon parents who neglected their duty.

In 1891 it was determined to remove one excuse, the inability of the parent to pay school fees for the non-attendance of children at school, by arranging that Education should be given without payment to all who demanded it. The result has been that fees are no longer paid in the majority of elementary schools, and the number of children who pay fees is steadily declining from year to year. A few figures will perhaps enable the reader to understand the progress of Elementary Schools since the first grant was made in 1832. There are now more than five and a half millions of scholars on the registers, with more than four and a half millions in average attendance; and there are 20,022 Elementary Day Schools, 17,008 being absolutely free. To control and teach these children demands the services of 31,038 pupil-teachers, 26,736 assistants, 58,874 certificated teachers, and 15,136 additional women teachers.

Evening Continuation Schools, intended for those who have left day schools, have been established in many towns, and even in villages, and are rapidly increasing in number and in usefulness. In 1898 the number of scholars in attendance at 5,535 schools was 435,609, and although the majority were under sixteen years of age, it is interesting to note that ten per cent. of the whole number were adults. These Evening Schools, which are aided by a Government Grant and are under Government Inspection, must be distinguished from schools for Technical Education.

The urgent need of some provision for Technical Education was not generally felt in England until twenty or thirty years ago, when our manufacturers awoke to a perception of the fact that in many matters of detail continental workmen were superior to our own artisans. In the application of science and art to industries we seemed to be falling behind our neighbours, and those who studied the question of our inferiority ascribed it to the want of proper training, and to the lack of schools in which such training could be acquired. In 1878 several of the great city companies, in co-operation with the Corporation of London, established an Institute for the advancement of Technical Education, and took charge of the already existing technical examinations of the Society of Arts. Shortly afterwards a Royal Commission was appointed to inquire into the subject and published a long report in 1882. In 1889 a Technical Instruction Act was passed, authorising County Councils and other bodies to raise money to the extent of a penny rate for the purpose of Technical Education, and under the Local Taxation Act of 1890 about £750,000 was divided annually by the Treasury among County Councils and County boroughs, with permission to use the money in assisting Technical Education. This sum, which is derived from an additional tax on beer and spirits, has gradually increased, and now amounts to more than £800,000 a year. The subjects taught in Technical Schools vary with the districts in which they are established. In many counties the cultivation of the land and the development of agricultural products are of the first importance, while in manufacturing districts instruction is given in such technical arts as admit of local application. The work of the Technical Education Board of the

London County Council may be very fairly judged by the specimens of work shown at a recent English Educational Exhibition at the Imperial Institute. Carpentry, joinery, plumbers, masons, and smith's work, stone and wood carving, plasterers' work and staircasing, afforded evidence of the attention given to the building and allied trades. Engineers' tools and fittings, specimens of printing and photography, bicycles, carriages, watches, jewellers and silversmiths' work, engraving and enamelling, bookbinding, picture

A CLASS OF INFANTS UNDER THE SCHOOL BOARD DURING "BLOB" WORK.
HUGH MYDDLETON'S SCHOOLS.

framing, and other exhibits proved the variety and extent of the subjects taught in the London Polytechnics and other Institutes. There were also specimens of boot and shoe work and of dressmaking and plain and fancy needlework. All these were the work of scholars under one Council; and although the London County Council includes under its jurisdiction a larger population than any other, and could therefore collect a great variety of exhibits, we may well conclude that equally good work is being done elsewhere, and that Technical Education has been fairly established in England and Wales.

Educational Reformers have, during the Queen's reign, devoted much attention to Secondary Education, that is, to the teaching in schools intermediate between Elementary

Schools and the Universities. The definition is sufficiently wide to include Do-the-boys Hall and Eton College, and those who speak with authority assert that Secondary Education is still in a state of chaos. Nevertheless something has been done to reduce this chaos to order, and, as regards our public schools, it would be unfair not to notice the labours of such men as Dr. Arnold and Dr. Butler, sixty or seventy years ago, at Rugby and Shrewsbury, and the effect of their example upon other schools. The Charity Commissioners and the Endowed School Commissioners have effected great changes and improvements in many of the endowed schools, some of them ancient foundations dating back three or four centuries. The Universities of Oxford and Cambridge, by the establishment of local examinations, have also done something to raise the standard of education in Secondary schools, and the examinations of the College of Preceptors have tended in the same direction.

HUGH MYDDLETON'S SCHOOLS.

A.D. 1900.

PRACTICAL CHEMISTRY UNDER THE SCHOOL BOARD FOR LONDON.

At the beginning of the Nineteenth Century there were signs of re-awakening life in both Universities. Towards the middle of the century some few internal reforms had been effected by the Universities themselves, and in 1850 the appointment of a Royal Commission to inquire into the state, discipline, studies, and revenues of the University and colleges of Oxford, followed two years later by a similar Commission for Cambridge, paved the way for great changes in both those venerable bodies.

The Oxford Commissioners met with much opposition from the college authorities, some of whom absolutely refused to answer inquiries, or to give any information, but the Commissioners were able to present a report recommending the abolition of subscription to the XXXIX. articles at matriculation, which was not required at Cambridge; the creation of a new governing body for the University, the abolition of clerical fellowships, an improvement in University as distinguished from college teaching, and other important changes. Some of their recommendations were embodied in a bill

which became law in 1854, and the theological test was done away with not only at matriculation but also for the B.A. degree. Two years later a measure on similar lines reformed the University of Cambridge.

In 1871 theological tests were abolished in both Universities for all degrees except in Divinity. Scholarships and fellowships have now been thrown open to competition, and students have been admitted to the Universities without the necessity of becoming members of a college or Hall. The range of studies has been enlarged and the Universities are greatly superior to what they once were. The qualifications for a pass degree, as distinguished from a degree with honours, are, however, still absurdly low, and there is some ground for the complaint that too many students devote more time to athletics and the pursuit of mere enjoyment than to serious study. Both Universities allow women to enter for several of the examinations for degrees, although they still refuse to confer degrees upon women who pass the examinations, and colleges for women students have been established at both Oxford and Cambridge Lectures, known as University Extension Lectures, are also given in many towns by graduates of the Universities and are often well attended.

W. E. FORSTER.

After the statue on Thames Embankment.

Until 1858 the University of London, while freely opening its matriculation examinations to all students, refused degrees to persons who were not educated at one of the colleges affiliated to the University. In that year the restriction was removed and degrees can now be obtained by persons of either sex who pass the examinations. The University is about to remove from Burlington House to South Kensington, and will in future undertake a certain amount of teaching, instead of confining its work to mere examinations for matriculation and degrees.

In 1880 a new University for the north of England obtained a charter and was named the Victoria University, in honour of the Queen. It originated in a legacy of £100,000 left in 1846 by Mr. John Owens, a Manchester merchant, for the endowment of a college which should afford a University education to its students. The college was opened in 1851 and at first made but slow progress, but from 1860 onwards its growth was rapid, and the original endowment has been largely increased by other benefactors.

CHAPTER XLI.

A GLANCE ABROAD.

1858-1875.

DURING the third quarter of the century many momentous events occurred on the continent and in other parts of the world, at some of which we must glance, though very briefly, selecting those that were of greatest interest to our own country.

Neurdein, Photo. *Yvon.*

BATTLE OF MAGENTA.

Anxious to uphold his position at home by an active foreign policy, and to gratify his own restless ambition, Napoleon III., in 1859, entered upon a war against Austria on behalf of Italian unity. In alliance with Victor Emanuel, King of Sardinia, who was guided by his great minister, Cavour, Napoleon had determined that "he would sweep the Austrians from the North of Italy up to the Adriatic." In April hostilities were commenced by Austria moving her army across the Ticino into Piedmontese territory; and the first engagement between the opposing forces took place at Montebello, when, after a four hours' struggle, the Austrians were obliged to retreat. On the 4th of June the great battle of Magenta, on the road to Milan, was fought, with a loss, as reported at the time, of 2,000 Allies and 15,000 of the enemy. The great assault of MacMahon from

the north gave victory to the Allies, and the Austrians, finding it impossible to defend Milan, retired and abandoned all Lombardy to the invaders. Calling up troops from Bologna and the other fortified towns in the Papal States, Austria then prepared to defend the Venetian frontier and the fortresses that guarded it. After Napoleon and Victor Emanuel had spent some triumphant days in Milan, the Allies continued their advance and met the Austrians at Solferino. It was one of the bloodiest battles of recent times. The Austrians were again defeated and had to withdraw.

By the treaty of Villafrancha and the Peace of Zurich, which followed these successes, Lombardy was added to the dominions of the King of Sardinia. As a compensation for his expenditure of blood and money in the war with Austria, the French Emperor insisted on the cession to him of Savoy and Nice, notwithstanding the

Neurdein, Photo. *Yvon.*

BATTLE OF SOLFERINO.

fact that when he went to war he had declared that he did not seek for any extension of territory. As the consent of France to the enlargement of Sardinia could not be bought in any other way, Nice and Savoy, despite the reluctance of Cavour, were ceded to France on the 24th of March, 1860.

The annexation of Nice and Savoy by Napoleon created great displeasure in Europe generally, and most of all in England. It was regarded as an act of "most ignoble rapacity," of consummate treachery, falseness, and extortion, and it strengthened that feeling of mistrust in England that gave birth, as we have seen, to the Volunteer Movement, and the strengthening of our coast fortifications and other defences.

Parma, Modena, and Tuscany revolted from their Bourbon rulers, tendered their allegiance to Victor Emanuel, and became united to Sardinia, while Garibaldi's brilliant successes in Sicily and Naples brought the whole of Southern Italy over to Victor Emanuel, who, on March 17th, 1861, assumed the title of King of Italy. "Of all the

European Powers, Great Britain alone watched the creation of the new Italian Kingdom with complete sympathy and approval. . . . . In spite of wide political ill-will, and of the passionate hostility of the clerical party throughout Europe, there was little probability that the work of the Italian people would be overthrown by external force."

Early in 1865 Florence became the royal residence. By the Treaty of Vienna, 1866, Austria ceded Venetia, and on the withdrawal of the French garrison from Rome in 1870 the city annexed itself to Italy, and the King entered Rome in the following year and took up his residence in the Quirinal.

It has many times been said, and the saying is true, that if after his victories over Russia and Austria, which had flattered the military pride of France,—if after the period of great commercial prosperity had set in and Paris had been "Haussmannised" and reconstructed, Napoleon had ended his reign, he might have left behind him in popular

Alinari, Photo. *C. Ademollo.*

MEETING OF VICTOR EMANUEL AND GARIBALDI.

memory the name of a great ruler. He had done some really great things; he had conspicuously failed in nothing, but he was suspected everywhere. From 1863 onwards his power began to fail, until in 1870 it utterly collapsed.

One of his audacious schemes was to establish French influence in Mexico. Maximilian, Archduke of Austria, who had recently married the Princess Charlotte of Belgium—a young and beautiful woman, to whom our Queen was very much attached—was crowned Emperor of Mexico in 1863, under guarantee of French protection, and the Republican leader Juarez, was driven into the extreme north of the country. Napoleon had entered into a treaty to keep 25,000 men in Mexico for the protection of the new Emperor, but when at the conclusion of the Civil War in the United States in 1865, the Government of Washington refused to acknowledge any authority in Mexico save that of Juarez, Napoleon, being powerless to resist, withdrew his military force and left the unfortunate Maximilian to his inevitable fate. He sent his young wife to Europe to plead his cause, but her efforts were in vain, and the strain upon her was so severe—

THE FRANCO-GERMAN WAR.

knowing that the failure of her mission would end in the ruin of her husband, to whom she was devotedly attached—that her reason fled, and the rest of her life was spent in hopeless insanity. Although urged by Napoleon to abdicate while there was time, Maximilian would not desert his counsellors, who urged him to remain. In March, 1867, the French soldiery quitted Mexico, Juarez and his followers returned to the capital, which was entirely in their hands, and on the 15th of May Maximilian was made prisoner. He was tried by court martial as a brigand, sentenced to death, and within twenty-four hours was shot at Queretaro. "Thus ended the attempt of Napoleon III. to establish the influence of France and of his dynasty beyond the seas. The doom of Maximilian excited the compassion of Europe; a deep, irreparable wound was inflicted on the reputation of the man who had tempted him to his treacherous throne, who had guaranteed him protection, and at the bidding of a superior power had abandoned him to his ruin."*

One of the most notable events of European history was the Franco-German War of 1870-71, but happily its effect was not felt in Great Britain to any alarming extent. Napoleon was jealous of the fame which Prussia had won at Sadowa, and was anxious to conciliate his army by doing something to eclipse that great success. On a feeble pretext—the Crown of Spain being offered to a Hohenzollern—war was declared on the 16th of July, 1870, and French armies screamed "À Berlin!" as they moved towards the Rhine. The seeming success of the French at Wörth, where the Germans lost 10,000 men, raised false hopes, for MacMahon's army was utterly destroyed and shattered as an organised force. Ultimately, however, he concentrated his re-organised army round about Sedan to encounter Moltke with his 240,000 men, the men at his own disposal being about half that number. Here he was intercepted and surrounded by the Germans, and here, after a disastrous fight, Napoleon caused a white flag to be displayed on the fortress, and wrote to the King of Prussia that "as he had not been able to die in the midst of his troops, nothing remained for him but to surrender his sword into the hands of his Majesty." The terms of capitulation were carried out by General Moltke, Bismarck having taken the precaution to keep the King of Prussia at a distance, lest the kindliness of his heart should cause him to hesitate in the terms of surrender required by the Germans. On the 2nd of September Napoleon was visited by King William, the Crown Prince, and the Prince of Saxony, at the château of Bellevue, and on the next morning he began his miserable journey to the Palace of Wilhelmshohe at Cassel, the place chosen for his captivity.

On the 4th of September the Imperial French dynasty was deposed and a Republic proclaimed, the Empress and the Ministry flying for their lives, and the Empress making good her retreat to England. The Germans soon began their march to Paris, and for four months surrounded the city, starving the inhabitants into surrender. Then came the triumphal march through the Arc de Triomphe down the magnificent avenue of the Champs Elysées to the Tuileries.

On the 18th of January, 1871, King William, who during the siege had occupied the Palace of Versailles, assembled the Princes of Germany and the representatives of its army in the Great Hall of Mirrors, and assumed the title of Emperor of Germany. The divisions of Germany were now healed, there was no longer any obstacle to the much

* Fyffe's History of Modern Europe. Vol. III., p. 399.

THE FRANCO-GERMAN WAR.

desired unity of the race, and by the irony of fate this happy consummation took place in a French Palace, built by Louis XIV., the ancient foe of the German nation. The first Parliament of the Empire was opened at Berlin two months later.

The terms demanded by the conquerors of France were that Alsace and Lorraine, once a part of Germany, and still, after two centuries of separation, retaining the German language, should be given back; that a war indemnity equal to two hundred millions of English money should be paid, and that a German army should remain on French soil maintained at French expense until the indemnity was paid to the uttermost farthing.

To add to the troubles of France a cruel, reckless civil war broke out, and Paris was again besieged and taken—this time by French troops. There were not a few who

WILHELMSHÖHE, CASSEL.

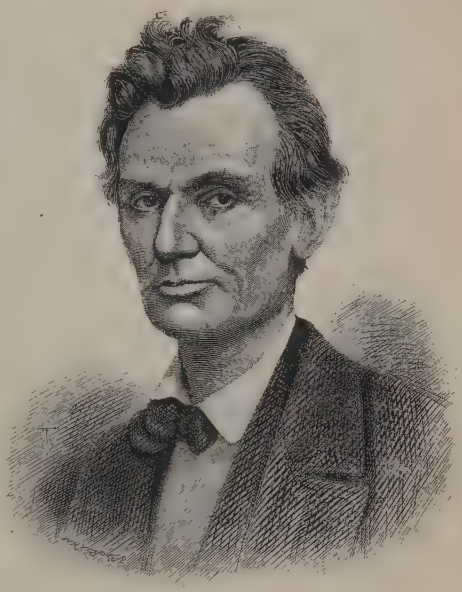
prophesied that France was hopelessly ruined, and would soon cease to be numbered among the great powers. But with that wonderful recuperativeness, which is one of her great characteristics, within fifteen years she had so far recovered herself as to render her antagonism again formidable.

The terrible civil war which broke out in the United States in May, 1861, and lasted until April, 1865, had its origin in the endeavour of the Northern States to obtain the abolition of slavery throughout the Union. Abraham Lincoln, the first President wholly in favour of abolition and opposed to "State Rights," commenced his Presidency in January, 1861. Already the State of South Carolina had seceded from the Union, and in the course of the spring ten other States followed her example and formed themselves into a Confederation of which Mr. Jefferson Davis became the first President. The Northern majority regarded this secession as illegal, and war to the knife commenced.

Strange to say the sympathies of England were mainly with the Southerners, notwithstanding the efforts that had been persistently made in this country for the suppression of slavery, even to the sacrifice of twenty millions sterling to purchase the freedom of the slaves throughout the British dominions.

England professed strict neutrality, but the state of feeling ran so high that on more than one occasion we were on the eve of being involved in the dispute.

The news of the Southerners' success at Bull's Run was received in England with general satisfaction, and it seemed at first that the Confederates were in the ascendant. But at sea they were altogether at fault, the whole regular navy having passed into the hands of the North.



ABRAHAM LINCOLN.

Strong feelings were excited in December, 1861, when Captain Wilkes, the commander of the United States warship, the *San Jacinto*, stopped an English mail-steamer, the *Trent*, and forcibly took from her two Confederate envoys, Messrs. Slidell and Mason, who were sailing between neutral ports under the protection of the British flag. It was an act contrary to international law, and it produced a storm of indignation in this country, and a loud cry for war. Despite the labours of Messrs. Bright and Cobden, who stood almost alone in resisting the cry for war, Lord Palmerston made immediate preparations for the dispatch of troops to Canada, and hostilities would have commenced had not the Americans apologised and given up their prisoners.

JEFFERSON DAVIS.

A still more serious difficulty arose between England and America during the continuance of the war. The Americans complained, and not without cause, that England allowed Confederate privateer cruisers to be built in English dockyards, in disregard of the view that it is improper for neutrals to fit out war ships for belligerents. The *Alabama*, the most famous of these privateers, was built in the yards of Messrs. Laird, the well-known Birkenhead firm of ship-builders, and preyed on Federal commerce until it drove it from the seas. In the course of two years she captured between sixty and seventy merchantmen, and at last was sunk in a sea duel in

the English Channel by the Federal warship the *Kearsarge*. The *Alabama* was to all intents and purposes an English pirate. Later on, two ironclads were on the point of leaving the Mersey for the Confederate Service. Again Mr. Adams, the American Minister, demanded their detention, adding in his letter to Lord Russell "It would be superfluous in me to point out to your lordship that *this is war!*" The ironclads were detained.

The great case of the *Alabama* Claims dragged its weary length along for many years, and it was not until the Conference at Geneva in 1872 that it was settled. England, much against the grain, had to apologise, and eventually agreed to pay an indemnity of £3,250,000 for the acts of the *Alabama* and other Confederate cruisers that had done so much injury to American commerce.

The Civil War in America came to a close with the fall of Richmond, the Confederate capital, in 1865, when the Southern armies surrendered. Of the disastrous effect of this war on Great Britain we have written in our account of the Lancashire Cotton Famine.

The war ended on the 18th of April, 1865. The moderation of the victors was beyond all praise, and the leading men of North and South vied with each other in promoting a policy based on "conciliation for the future and oblivion for the past." On the 4th of March in that same year Mr. Lincoln began his second term of office, and on the 14th, just at the moment when the policy he had so vigorously prosecuted was triumphing, he paid a visit to Ford's Theatre at Washington. An actor, Wilkes Booth, suddenly entered the President's private box and discharged a pistol at his head. Booth then leapt on the stage, and, exclaiming "*Sic semper tyrannis!*" fled for his life, but was afterwards shot. President Lincoln—whose name is honoured and revered in this country almost as much as in his own—never recovered consciousness, and died on the following day.

Soon after the marriage in 1863 of the Prince of Wales to Princess Alexandra, eldest daughter of the King of Denmark, difficulties arose which threatened to involve Great Britain and Denmark of the one part, and Austria and Prussia of the other part, in war.

When Frederick VII., King of Denmark, died, the succession, according to the Treaty of London, signed in May, 1852, by all the great Powers, fell to the father of the Princess of Wales. For a long period there had been a dispute between Germany and Denmark as to who should possess the duchies of Schleswig and Holstein. Frederick VII., relying on the declaration of the Great Powers in favour of the integrity of the Danish Kingdom, sought to assimilate Schleswig, and in some degree, Holstein, to the rest of the monarchy, and a manifesto to this effect issued shortly before his death was the immediate ground of the conflict between Germany and Denmark which broke out soon after Prince Christian came to the throne. It was at first thought possible that war might he averted by his withdrawing from the position taken up by his predecessor, but the Danish Ministers and people would not hear of this. Germany, on the other hand, desired that Schleswig-Holstein should be attached under a ruler of its own to the Germany Federation as it then existed, and Count Bismarck, "the profound, audacious and iron-handed" Minister of the King of Prussia, not only gave armed assistance, but used his influence with Austria to the same end.

EDWIN M. STANTON, Secretary of War.

ABRAHAM LINCOLN, President.

WILLIAM H. SEWARD, Secretary of War.

F. B. Carpenter.

THE FIRST READING OF THE EMANCIPATION PROCLAMATION BEFORE THE CABINET.
From the original Picture painted at the White House, 1864.

The Danish Army was mobilised, but from the first it was seen that the conflict must end in failure with such powerful antagonists as Prussia and Austria. Naturally enough, Denmark believed that England would come to her aid, and that France would not see her struggle alone. But England had too much at stake to risk collision with those two great Powers who, as Lord Palmerston said, "can bring 200,000 or 300,000 men into the field," and she took up the somewhat humiliating position of a looker-on—a position which, through much "meddling and muddling," brought on her no little discredit. France had other schemes in contemplation, and refused to act. And so it happened that in June an overwhelming force of Prussians and Austrians conquered and took possession of the two duchies. Hostilities were soon brought to a close, and by the Treaty of Vienna, concluded on the 30th of October, 1864, the King of Denmark ceded his rights in the whole of Schleswig-Holstein to the Sovereigns of Austria and Prussia jointly, and undertook to recognise whatever disposition they might make of those provinces.

Soon after the Crimean War a great revulsion of feeling passed over Russia with regard to the despotic system of repression and grinding servitude which had been prevalent for the previous thirty years. There appeared to be in all quarters and among all classes a desire for reform, not only in the system of government, but in the social life of the people. A reaction from the savage rule of the Emperor Nicholas brought about a ferment of new ideas, and there was a yearning everywhere for a total reconstruction of the national life. Although the Hour had come the Man seemed to be wanting. There were no masterful men at the head of affairs, no prominent and capable statesmen to make a stand for a policy of reform. Soon after Nicholas—the despotic tyrant who had bent the will of the State to his own; who could brook no contradiction; who had discouraged education, free thought, progress and culture, and was absorbed in one idea, the military greatness of Russia—had passed away, a great sense of relief was experienced. It was then realised that his despotism was a failure, that his military greatness was a dream that had ended in defeat and humiliation, and his whole policy was discredited. The task before his successor was a hard one, but he commenced it with such vigour as he possessed. He gave considerable liberty to the press, which had previously been gagged, and within a year or two from the conclusion of the war between sixty and seventy new journals were founded in St. Petersburg and Moscow alone; he threw open the doors for the entrance of Western culture and progress, in art, science, and literature, and he listened to the cry of the enfranchised press for the education of the people, for their participation in political affairs, and for many other needful reforms. The chief of these was the emancipation of the serfs, and its achievement was the greatest event of his reign. Fifty millions of Russian peasants were in bondage, subject to the arbitrary wills of their owners, bought and sold with the properties on which they laboured. On his coronation day Alexander II. announced his intention to deal with the question, and for three years it was under discussion. Then, on the 3rd of March, 1861, the Ukase of the Czar converted fifty millions of serfs (twenty-five millions common serfs, and twenty-five millions crown and appanage serfs) into free proprietors. It was the greatest act of legislation of modern times. Within the next few weeks the Ukase was read in every church of the Russian Empire, and its concluding sentence went to the hearts of the weary millions like the breath of new life:—"And now, pious and faithful people, make upon thy forehead the sacred sign of the Cross, and join thy prayers to ours to call down the blessing of the Most High upon thy first free labours, the sure pledge of thy personal well-being and of the public prosperity."

In 1862 Russia completed the milennium of her national history, and the anniversary was celebrated by further reforms. Judicial proceedings hitherto conducted in secret were thrown open; corrupt judges were deposed and competent ones appointed; trial by jury in criminal cases was established; laws which had been framed only for the rich were made equally applicable to the poor; local self-government hitherto entirely unknown was given to certain districts and provinces; flogging in the army was abolished; the construction of railways was promoted, and in order to encourage the acquisition of knowledge by travel, passports, which had hitherto cost a large sum of money, were reduced to a mere trifle.

ALEXANDER II. OF RUSSIA.

While these reforms were proceeding, and educated men in Russia were hoping that these great organic changes would soon bring their country more nearly to the political and social level of its European neighbours, a revolution broke out in Poland and put a stop to all further measures of reform.

For years the downtrodden people of Poland had waited for vengeance on their tyrannical rulers, and Russia, unhappily, took the step which brought on the insurrection. "A levy of one in every two hundred of the population throughout the Empire had been ordered in the autumn of 1862. Instructions were sent from St. Petersburg to the effect that in raising this levy in Poland the country-population were to be spared, and that all persons who were known to be connected with the disorders in the towns were to be seized as soldiers. This terrible sentence against an entire political class was carried out, so far as it lay within the power of the authorities, on the night of January 14th, 1863. But before the imperial press-gang surrounded the houses of its victims a rumour of the intended blow had gone abroad. In the preceding hours, and during the night of the 14th, thousands fled from Warsaw and the other Polish towns into the forests. There they formed themselves into armed bands, and in the course of the next few days a guerilla warfare broke out wherever Russian troops were found in insufficient strength or off their guard."*

News of one horror after another arrived, and aroused the indignation of all Europe. Everywhere in Poland blood was flowing freely, and the midnight sky was red with the flames of burning villages and homesteads; fines and confiscations brought all the wealthier inhabitants to the verge of ruin, and the whole population of suspected villages was put to the sword. The Committee of the National Insurrection were not slow in making reprisals wherever possible, and the land was given up to a reign of terror. "The Russian people, from the Czar to the peasant, felt the struggle to be nothing less than one for the dismemberment or the preservation of their own country, and the doom of Polish nationality, at least for some generations, was sealed. The diplomatic intervention

* Fyffe's History of Modern Europe.

of the Western Powers on behalf of the constitutional rights of Poland under the Treaty of Vienna, which was to some extent supported by Austria, only prolonged a hopeless struggle, and gave unbounded popularity to Prince Gortschakoff, by whom, after a show of courteous attention during the earlier and still perilous stage of the insurrection, the interference of the Powers was resolutely and unconditionally repelled. By the spring of 1864 the insurgents were crushed or exterminated."†

Japan, the "Land of the Rising Sun," was, until the second half of the century, a *terra incognita* to foreigners, its Government forbidding all intruders—except a few Dutch—at the point of the sword, from holding intercourse with the people, whose habits, customs, and resources were a mystery to all the Western nations. From time to time the question of the possibility of opening up the country was discussed, and expeditions were organised by America, Great Britain, and other nations to endeavour to obtain treaties to that end. In 1858 Lord Elgin visited Japan as British Ambassador, and signed a treaty between Great Britain and Japan, whereby five ports were fully opened up to trade. In the following year Mr. (afterwards Sir) Rutherford Alcock was appointed her Majesty's first resident Minister at Jeddo. The treaty made between Great Britain and Japan, and another between the United States and Japan, had been signed by the Shôgun (Tycoon), or chief Minister, and had given offence at the Mikado's court, where the policy was to expel the barbarian. For over six hundred years all real power was in the hands of the Shôgun, and a movement to abolish the Shôgunate was therefore planned in the winter of 1867, and in the war which followed the Mikado was successful, so that the whole Imperial authority came into his hands. The Mikado took up his residence in the old Palace of the Shôguns, at Jeddo, and the Government having been finally established there the work of consolidation commenced. A complete change now took place in the treatment of Europeans. All former treaties were ratified and extended, while the Japanese rapidly became converted to Western ideas, both political and social.

So soon as a permanent settlement with Japan had been arrived at the progress in civilisation was marvellous. "It was a revolution the most sudden, organic, and to all appearance complete that has ever yet been seen in the history of nations."*

Assisted by English skill and labour many public works were in an incredibly short space of time set on foot. A railroad was constructed from Yokohama to Jeddo; telegraph wires were laid between the same points and between Hiogo and Osaka, and the line from the Eastern capital to Negasaki put Jeddo in direct telegraphic communication with Europe; a new Mint was turning out millions of Japanese dollars, gold, silver, and other coins; lighthouses were built at well-chosen spots along the coast, and fitted with the best English machinery. Under the management of French engineers, a dry dock and other works were made at the Yokoska arsenal; the nucleus of a national army, drilled after the French fashion, was formed, and a navy was organised under the tuition of an English officer of Marines.

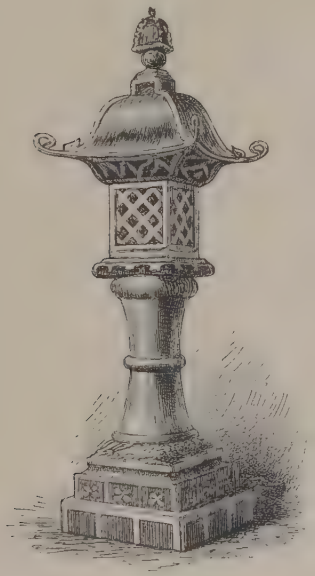
Social changes were equally extraordinary. In the matter of dress the cumbrous two swords were replaced by the cane or umbrella; the flowing robes gave place to European clothes. In the legislature one edict rapidly followed another; many privileges of the upper-class were abolished, and the lower classes were raised in position; nobles

† Fyffe's History of Modern Europe.

* "History of Our Own Times." Mc.Carthy, Vol. I., p. 121; Vol. III., 186.

were allowed to marry out of their own order, grooms to ride on horseback, women to travel abroad, and the law which tabooed the lowest of the people and regarded them as unclean and unworthy to live with the rest of the nation, was repealed. Trial by jury was established and Post Office Savings Banks were opened. The Mikado, too, came out of his seclusion into broad daylight, and a notification was published on the street-boards informing the people that they need not prostrate themselves and hide their faces whilst he passed by. It seemed as if a sudden passion had seized upon the Japanese to pull down and abolish everything that was old, and to adopt unhesitatingly and almost without inquiry whatever came into their heads or their hands smacking of Western usages.

As commerce increased England became inundated with works of Japanese industry and art. One of the distinguishing features of the International Exhibition of 1862 and of the Paris Exhibition of 1867, was the collection of Japanese work, and a rage for possessing specimens set in in both countries, but particularly in England. Now, every leading street in every great city of the world has its bazaar of Japanese wares.



JAPANESE LANTERN.

CHAPTER XLII.

IN PARLIAMENT.

1852-1875.

INCIDENTALLY we have referred in preceding chapters to men and measures in Parliament during the period under review. We shall now supply some of "the lines left out," relating, for the most part, to legislation that has affected the life of the century, omitting mere party questions and the now somewhat uninteresting details of changes of Ministeries.*

In 1852 Parliament met for the first time in the new Palace of Westminster, the magnificent Tudor-Gothic building erected, from a plan by Sir Charles Barry, on the site of the old Houses of Parliament which were burned down in 1834. It covers eight acres of ground, cost three millions of money, and is one of the finest buildings of modern England. Here, in the same year, Mr. Disraeli, Chancellor of the Exchequer in the Derby Government, introduced his first Budget in a speech which lasted for five hours. It was characteristically brilliant, and showed an unsuspected capacity for figures; it dealt mainly with the reduction of the malt duty and the increase of the inhabited house duty. Disraeli did not meet with the success he appeared to anticipate, and in the debate that followed—one of the finest and most spirited for many years—he fought with the courage of despair, and flung out passionate sentences right and left. For example, in the course of his speech he turned to Sir Charles Wood, late Chancellor of the Exchequer, and said, "I care not to be the Right Honourable gentleman's critic, but if he would learn his business, he has yet to learn that petulance is not sarcasm, and that insolence is not invective." At two o'clock in the morning (December 11th) Mr. Gladstone, who had been member of Parliament for twenty years, but had never heretofore put forth his full strength, rose to reply. It was his first round in that great fight which was to last for a quarter of a century, until, in fact, Disraeli left the House of Commons—a Parliamentary duel that only finds its parallel in the opposition and rivalry of Pitt and Fox. The reply of Gladstone took the House by storm; it was impromptu, full of power and poignancy, marvellous in command of language, perfect in delivery and in gesture, and the House was magnetised under its influence. That speech closed the debate on Disraeli's first Budget and settled its fate. At four o'clock in the morning the House divided, and the Government was defeated by nineteen votes. Next day Lord Derby tendered his resignation, and the Earl of Aberdeen formed a Coalition Cabinet as we have already seen.†

In the following year (April 18th, 1853) Mr. Gladstone, Chancellor of the Exchequer, brought forward the first of that long series of remarkable Budgets with which his early fame was so closely identified. It was his "famous" Budget, and in his five hours' speech he displayed his splendid financial and oratorical ability in such a manner as at once to raise him head and shoulders over every Chancellor of the Exchequer who had preceded him.

* There were six changes of Ministry between June, 1846, and July, 1859.

† See page 477.

NEW PALACE OF WESTMINSTER.

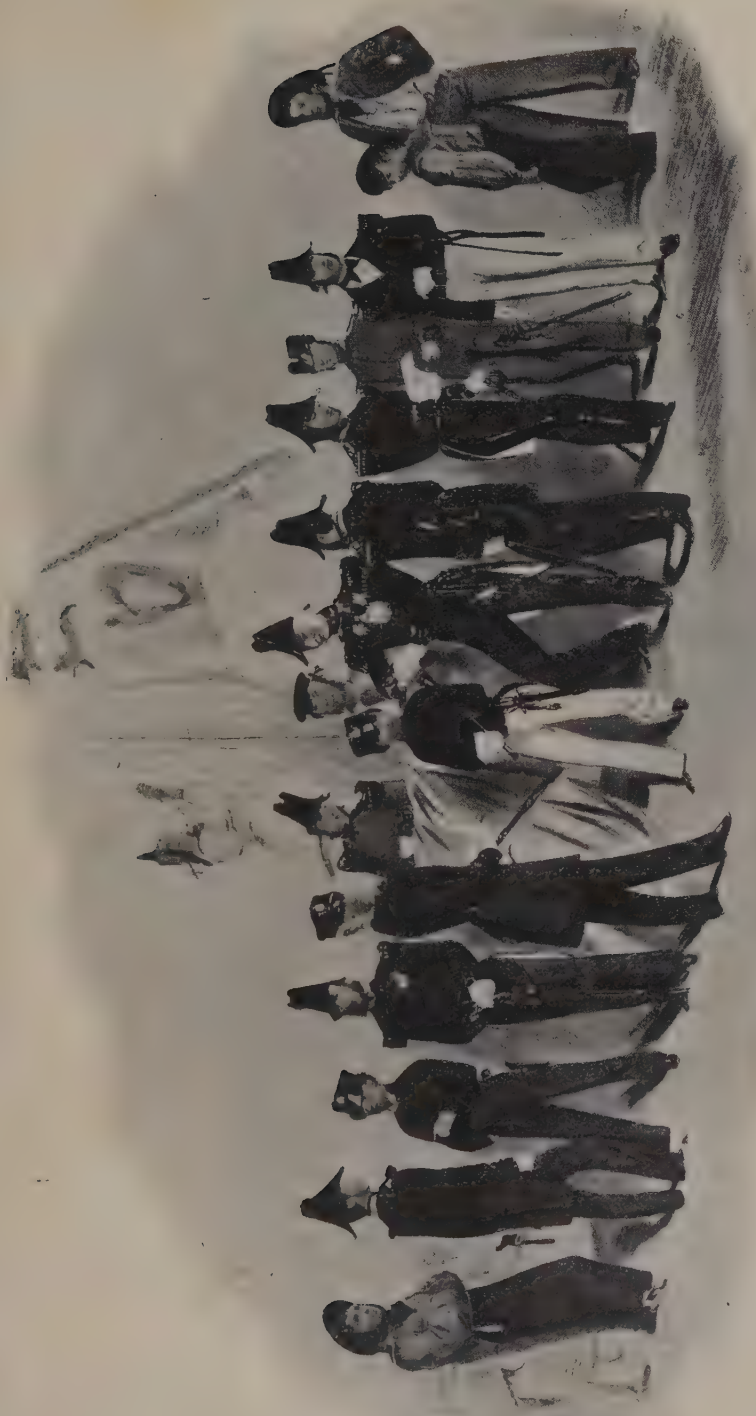
His speech was brilliant, and was listened to with intense interest on both sides of the House—for he had scarcely left the camp of Toryism—and his proposals gave satisfaction all round. The time was ripe for a good budget, as the commercial prosperity of the country under the system of free trade had reached a height never before attained. He dealt with the extension of the legacy duty, the gradual reduction of the income tax, an equalisation of spirit duties, abolition of soap duty, universal penny receipt stamp, reduction of duty on cabs and hackney coaches, and the equalisation of assessed taxes. It was a sweeping measure, inasmuch as a hundred and twenty-three articles that were paying duty would be set free altogether, while in the case of a hundred and thirty-three, the existing duties were to be reduced.

For many years Mr. Gladstone's free trade budgets added greatly to his reputation, especially as he used his surplus in the most popular way by taking off import duties on food-stuffs and on articles of daily consumption. Between 1859 and 1865 he reduced the number of articles on which duty was paid from four hundred and nineteen to forty-eight, and "everyone who paid less for his pound of tea or his newspaper could look upon him as a personal benefactor."

Among many useful measures that occupied the attention of Parliament in the fifties, we may mention the Act for the establishment of a Court of Divorce, abolishing the ancient jurisdiction of the Ecclesiastical Courts respecting divorce, and setting up a regular Court of Law—the Divorce and Matrimonial Causes Court—to deal with questions between husband and wife. It made divorce, hitherto only applicable to the rich, possible to the poor; and it substituted one good tribunal for three tribunals, in one of which—the debates in Parliament and in Committee—the proceedings were a scandal and a disgrace to the country. In the same year (1857) Gretna Green marriages became illegal.

In 1853 the first step was taken to abolish patronage for admission into the Civil Service of India, and to substitute competitive examinations instead. The old system had proved to be very mischievous; the new, after a few years' trial, was found to be in every way advantageous both in raising the character of the public administration and of the people, and in giving an extraordinary stimulus to mental cultivation in its most important branches, so that in 1858 the principle was adopted and incorporated into the India Civil Service Bill. It was found to work so well that it was afterwards extended by degrees to almost every branch of the public service, causing the old patronage system to pass entirely away.

In that year an old grievance and a remnant of religious intolerance that had, session after session, claimed the attention of Parliament, was abolished. On the repeal of the Test Act in 1828, every member of Parliament on taking his seat was required to affirm "on the true faith of a Christian," and this, of course, a Jew could not do. In 1830 Mr. Robert Grant moved for leave to bring in "a Bill to repeal the civil disabilities affecting British born subjects professing the Jewish religion." The Bill was thrown out. It was brought in again three years later and passed through the Commons, but was rejected by the Lords. A similar result followed whenever the question was revived. At length certain distinguished Jews offered themselves as candidates for seats in Parliament. In 1850, Baron Lionel Rothschild, who had twice been elected a Member for the City of London, presented himself at the table of the House and offered to take the oath omitting the words "on the true faith of a Christian," but was ordered to withdraw. In 1851, Mr. David Salomons went a step further, and after being similarly ordered, actually took his seat among the members. One of the great "scenes" of



THE ROYAL NAVY.

Parliament followed—one half of the House shouting to him to withdraw, and the other half calling upon him to retain his seat. He was allowed to remain for a time and availed himself of his opportunity by making a speech, in which he urged his own claims and those of his constituents. He was, however, ordered to withdraw, and he then tested in a Court of Law the legal aspect of the case, and the verdict was against him. The controversy continued until 1858, when Disraeli—himself a Jew by birth, although a Christian by conviction—was Prime Minister, and the long-standing struggle came to an end. Lord Lucan suggested a compromise, which was, in fact, a surrender by the House of Lords of the principle which it had hitherto so obstinately maintained. It was, that each House should have the power to modify, according to its pleasure, the form of oath to be administered to its members. A Bill embodying this suggestion was carried rapidly through its various stages, and the form of oath in the Lower House was altered in such a way as to allow of its being taken by a Jew, and this was administered in its amended form to Baron Rothschild, who was allowed to take his seat in the House from which he had so long been debarred.

From time to time attempts had been made to extend the Parliamentary franchise and to amend the representation of the people, and John Bright, who had re-appeared in politics, carried on a vigorous agitation, chiefly in the North of England. In 1859 Mr. Disraeli made his first attempt to "dish the Whigs" by bringing in a Reform Bill of his own. The attempt ended in disaster: two members of the Cabinet (Mr. Walpole and Mr. Henley) at once resigned their offices rather than join in a movement which they, in common with most Conservatives, considered alien to Conservative principles, and a too glaring "bid" for popular support. Disraeli's Bill proposed to equalise the franchise in counties and in boroughs, making £10 the limit in each case; to give a vote to all who had £60 in a Savings Bank; to persons receiving pensions in the naval, military or civil services amounting to £20 a year; to professional men, to graduates of Universities, ministers of religion, and other persons of education. Whatever there was to be said for these proposals, they were regarded in many quarters as whimsical and over-refined, and were laughed out of court as "fancy franchises." They ignored the working classes, for whom mainly reform was needed, and gave the franchise to students and professional men "who either already had the vote, or could have had it if they had any interest that way." The Bill was rejected: Lord Derby had to dissolve Parliament, and to resign, and Lord Palmerston, with a new Parliament—the sixth of Queen Victoria's reign—became Prime Minister once more with Gladstone Chancellor of the Exchequer and Lord John Russell Foreign Secretary. Disraeli's stratagem, for it was nothing more, had this sole effect—that it annoyed and disunited his own party, and caused his opponents to sink their differences in united action. Lord Palmerston was now in a stronger position than ever before, and continued to hold the office of Prime Minister to the end of his life with the approval of Conservatives as well as Liberals.

In 1860 Richard Cobden, the great free-trader, who believed in binding nations together by the brotherhood of trade, successfully negotiated a Commercial Treaty with France, arranging all the details in personal discussion with the Emperor and the leading French economists and statesmen, and so quietly was this done that the news of its being even in contemplation came as a surprise. A storm of angry discussion broke out, not only in England but in France, and Cobden was denounced in no measured terms; but the Government was strong and Mr. Gladstone was eloquent, and he carried the matter through the Commons as part of his Budget.

The Repeal of the Paper Duty was dealt with in the Budget of 1861. It was a very difficult task, and provoked a tremendous amount of discussion. To make short of a very long story in Parliamentary history, we will sum up the matter in a sentence or two. At the beginning of the century, with the avowed object of checking sedition, a stamp duty of fourpence was charged on every copy of a newspaper issued, and sixpence on every advertisement inserted. In 1836 the stamp duty was reduced to a penny on newspapers, and in 1855 was abolished altogether, and the advertisement duty was also done away with. There remained, however, a great burden on journalism in the shape of a heavy paper duty which made it impossible to issue at a profit a penny newspaper. This duty Mr. Gladstone sought to abolish, and his proposal was met by stout opposition from all quarters, expected and unexpected, in which even paper-makers and proprietors of high-priced newspapers, joined. The third reading of the Bill repealing the duty was only carried by a majority of nine in the Commons. In the Lords an amendment to reject the Bill was proposed, and was vigorously supported by Lord Lyndhurst, then in his eighty-ninth year, who was so feeble in body, however, that a rail had to be fixed for him to lean upon while speaking. The House of Lords voted against the repeal of the duty by a majority of eighty-nine. In doing so they had violated the Constitution by infringing the privileges of the House of Commons in refusing to sanction the repeal of a tax ordered by that body. It was alleged that they had exceeded their powers as much as if they had claimed the right of imposing taxation—a right belonging exclusively to the House of Commons. For two months a Committee sat to investigate the many points involved in the dispute, and eventually Lord Palmerston cut the Gordian knot by moving certain resolutions, affirming the exclusive right of the House of Commons to impose or repeal taxation. So it was that the Budget became memorable as the one that abolished what was popularly called "the taxes on knowledge."

LORD LYNDHURST AGAINST THE REPEAL OF THE PAPER DUTY.

In 1861 Lord Westbury (formerly Sir Richard Bethell), Lord Chancellor, commenced some vigorous measures for the reform of the bankruptcy laws; began the consolidation of the criminal law; and suggested important measures which were adopted by the Inns of Court for the education of the students. He was determined to codify the whole of

the English law, but unfortunately he fell under the censure of the House of Commons in connection with certain unsuitable appointments he had made, and he resigned the great seal.

From time to time various alterations were made in antiquated and vexatious laws, and in 1869 a Commission which had been appointed to inquire into the judicial system of the country with a view to its complete reconstruction and to its greater efficiency, published its report. In 1873 Lord Chancellor Selborne (formerly Sir Roundell Palmer) brought in his famous Judicature Bill, which proposed "to unite in one great tribunal all the higher Courts of Justice, to economise and distribute without regard to artificial and antiquated divisions the whole judicial system of the country, to put an end to the distinction between law and equity, so productive of vexatious annoyance and extravagant expense, in virtue of which suitors were sent from court to court without being able to obtain redress of their wrongs, and to lay the foundation for further reforms," making the law simpler, cheaper, and more certain.

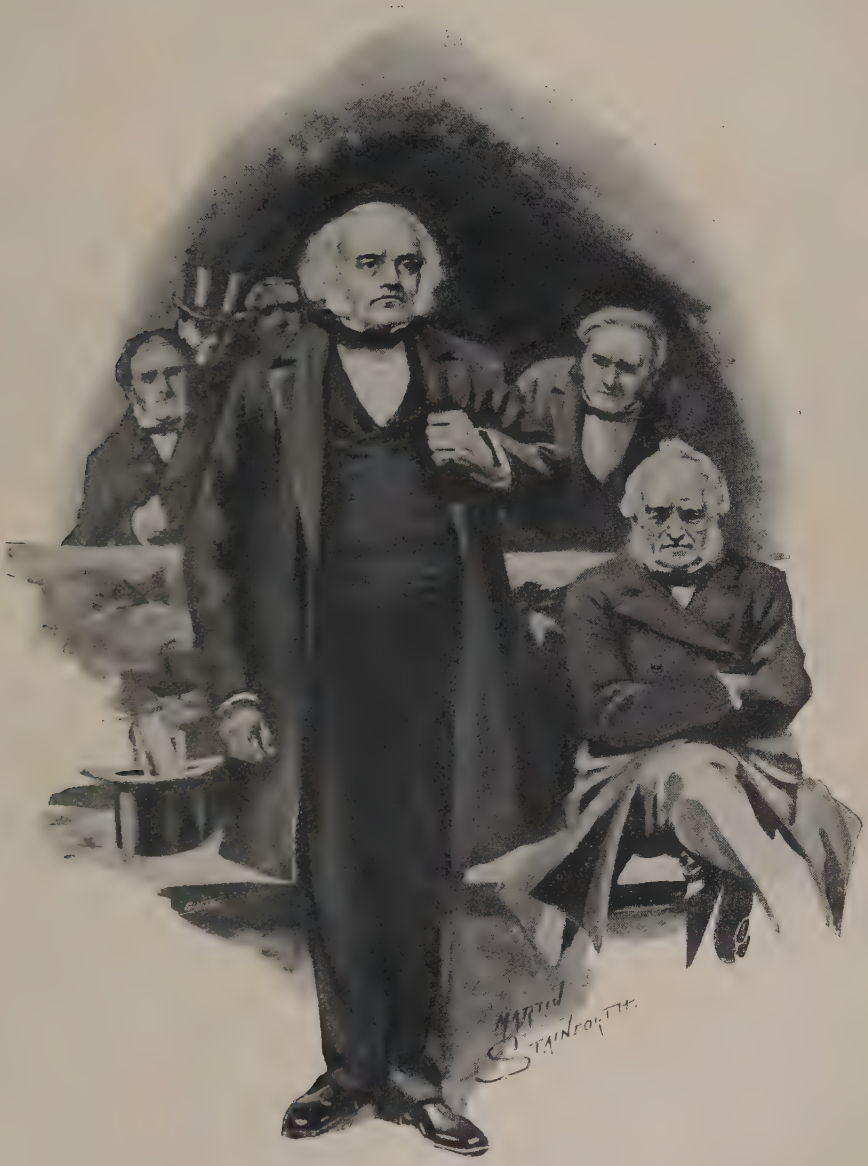
In 1865 death was busy among great politicians. On the 2nd of April, Richard Cobden, the great apostle of free trade died, "whose two great achievements," as Lord Palmerston said, "were the abrogation of those laws which regulated the importation of corn and the great development which that gave to the industry of the country, and those commercial arrangements which he negotiated with France, and which have largely tended to improve the trade and extend the commercial intercourse of the two countries."

There was a touching scene in the House when the leaders on both sides paid their tributes to the memory of the great statesman. John Bright, his intimate friend and political ally, rose, deeply affected and in a voice almost inaudible, said :—"The present moment is too near the scene in which I have witnessed the passing away of one of the kindest and purest spirits that ever breathed, for me to be able to express what I feel; but I hope to be able to have some other opportunity of pointing out to some portion of his countrymen the lesson which is to be gathered from the life and character of my friend. I can only say that after many years of most intimate and most brotherly friendship, I never knew how much I loved him till I lost him." And the strong man sat down and wept.

Six months later (October 18th) Lord Palmerston passed away at the advanced age of eighty-one. To the last he keenly enjoyed political life, still shone in society, still took an active interest in the turf, and loved hard work no less than he did the light and jocular things that had always given a relish to his life. If by reason of age he had lost his jaunty air of former days, he still retained his strong will, lofty courage, energy, and kindliness. He had sat in the House of Commons for fifty-eight years, which, as Mr. Cardwell said, was exactly one-tenth of its whole existence, and despite many errors of judgment, when he died the heart of the country was deeply stirred. He had lived to secure the "confidence of his Sovereign and the affection of her people."

There was never any love lost between Palmerston and Mr. Gladstone. Palmerston once said to an intimate friend (Lord Shaftesbury), "Gladstone will soon have it all his own way : and whenever he gets my place we shall have strange doings." At another time, when he was anxious for Mr. Gladstone's return for Oxford University, he said :—"He is a dangerous man, keep him in Oxford and he is partially muzzled, but send him elsewhere and he will run wild." When Mr. Gladstone heard of this, after his defeat at

Oxford, he commenced his speech in the Free Trade Hall, Manchester, at the opening of his South Lancashire campaign by saying, "At last, my friends, I have come amongst you . . . . unmuzzled!"



BRIGHT ON THE DEATH OF COBDEN.

"I never knew how much I loved him till I lost him."

To no Prime Minister of the century, within the same period of office fell so large an amount of Church patronage as to Lord Palmerston. Lord Shaftesbury, who was popularly believed to be the "keeper of his conscience," was the lay leader of the Low Church party, and acquired the name of "the bishop maker," as he was Palmerston's adviser on nearly all his church appointments.

Palmerston's Church patronage consisted of "twenty-five mitres and ten deaneries; including three appointments to English and two to Irish archbishoprics, sixteen English and four Irish bishoprics," and as he "did not know in theology Moses from Sydney Smith" it was natural he should turn to the man he implicitly trusted, who had his entire confidence in making these appointments. On the day he died his old and intimate friend wrote "Thus goes the 'Ultimus Romanorum!' and now begins the greatest social, political and religious revolution that England has yet endured." The words were prophetic. His death ended the period that began with the Reform Bill of 1832, and a new epoch in English politics began—the transition to democracy, the tendency to reform, upheaval, and general change.

Lord Palmerston was buried in Westminster Abbey between the younger Pitt and Charles James Fox, and Earl Russell became Prime Minister, with Mr. Gladstone still as Chancellor of the Exchequer, and Lord Clarendon as Foreign Secretary.

In March, 1866, Mr. Gladstone brought forward his Reform Bill. Its most formidable opponent was Mr. Robert Lowe (afterwards Lord Sherbrooke), who gathered the malcontents around him and retired, as Mr. Bright happily expressed it, to the Cave of Adullam, where, as in the case of David, "everyone that was in distress and everyone that was discontented gathered themselves unto him, and he became Captain over them." And so it came to pass that dissentient Liberals were called Adullamites, and joined the Conservatives to defeat the Ministry.

The Bill passed the second reading by a majority of five, and died in Committee. Then the Ministry resigned, and Lord Russell's official life came to an end. Although he continued to take interest in every Liberal measure, the rest of his days were spent in retirement, and in literary pursuits. He died in May, 1878.

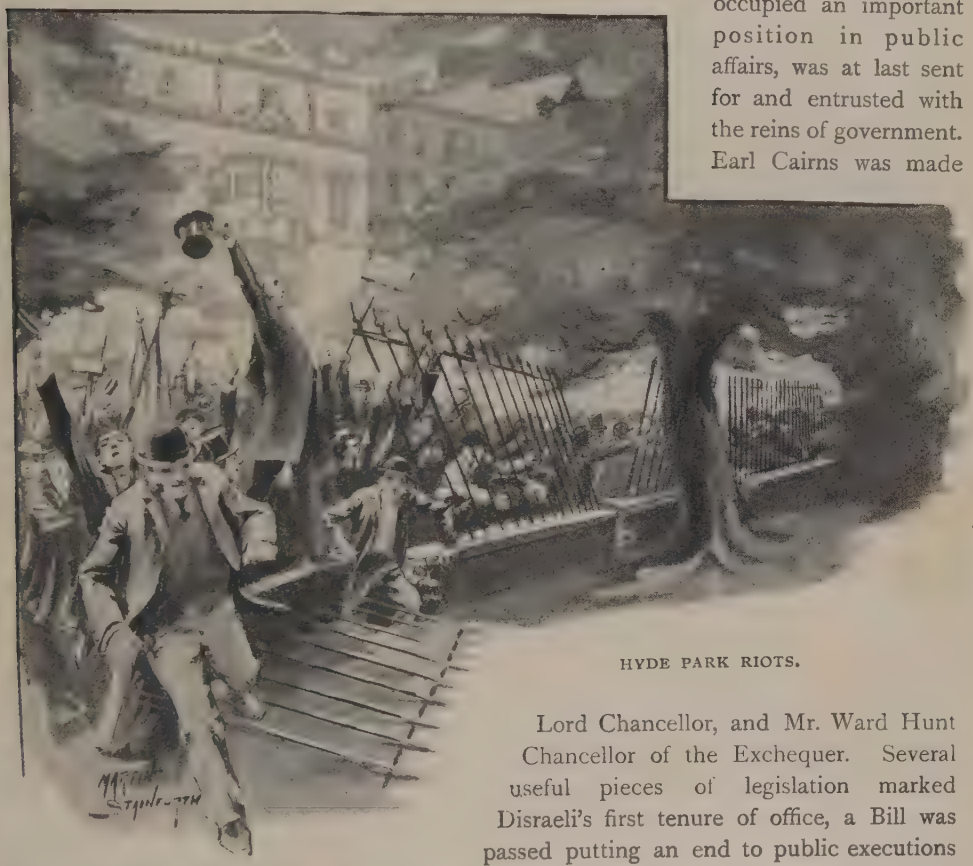
On the defeat of Gladstone's Reform Bill, Lord Derby became Prime Minister, and no sooner did this occur than the whole country began to cry out for reform. The Reform League, under the presidency of Mr. Beales, a barrister, summoned a meeting in Hyde Park for July 23rd, which Mr. Walpole, the Home Secretary, very unwisely refused to allow, and issued a notice that the gates of the Park would be closed at 5 p.m. The Reformers came in their thousands, and found the gates closed, whereupon Mr. Beales and his committee retired to Trafalgar Square to discuss the situation. The enormous mob that had gathered round the railings of Hyde Park were not to be so easily appeased. They stuck to the position they had taken up until a rush from behind forced the foremost against the railings, which yielded to the pressure. Riot ensued, a large portion of the railings was torn down, stones were thrown at the police, and the troops had a hot time of it, but eventually peace was restored.

On the failure of Mr. Gladstone's scheme of reform, Disraeli determined to take up the running, and early in 1867 brought in a Reform Bill of his own. Three members of the Cabinet—Lord Carnarvon, Lord Cranborne (afterwards Marquis of Salisbury), and General Peel—so strongly disapproved of his action in the matter that they resigned their seats. Nevertheless, the Bill went forward, and after much discussion and pulling to pieces of its clauses, it finally passed, conferring household suffrage in boroughs and a £12 franchise in counties.

Some famous sayings marked this stormy epoch. On the third reading Lord Derby, quoting a remark made by Lord Cranborne, said:—"No doubt we are making a great experiment, and 'taking a leap in the dark,' but I have the greatest confidence in the

sound sense of my countrymen." Another saying, ascribed to Lord Derby on being told that the measure was extremely democratic, was, "At any rate, we have dished the Whigs." A third saying, by Mr. Disraeli, gave great offence. Referring to the Reform Act at a banquet in Edinburgh, he said, "I had to prepare the mind of the country and to educate—if it be not arrogant to use such a phrase—to educate our party!"

In February, 1868, Lord Derby, whose health had been for some time in an unsatisfactory state, retired from office, and Mr. Disraeli, who for thirty years had occupied an important position in public affairs, was at last sent for and entrusted with the reins of government. Earl Cairns was made



HYDE PARK RIOTS.

Lord Chancellor, and Mr. Ward Hunt Chancellor of the Exchequer. Several useful pieces of legislation marked Disraeli's first tenure of office, a Bill was passed putting an end to public executions which had long been a scandal to the country; the custom of referring election petitions to a tribunal composed of members of the House of Commons was abolished, and a legal tribunal substituted: voting by proxy was abandoned by the House of Lords, and more important than all, the Government took over the whole telegraph system and attached it to the work of the Post Office department.

Mr. Disraeli's position was an awkward one, as he could not reckon on a majority on any question upon which the Opposition should act together under an influential and resolute leader, and the strength of his power was soon to be tested. In March, 1868, Mr. Gladstone took in hand the important question of the position of the Established Protestant Church of Ireland, and when he brought forward his resolution for its disestablishment and disendowment, the first division showed a majority of sixty-one in favour of the project. That settled the fate of Disraeli's Ministry. Parliament was

dissolved in July, then followed a *furore* of canvassing and platform speaking almost without precedent, and in the end the Liberals were returned with a majority in the House of Commons of a hundred and twenty—twice their majority in the late Parliament. Mr. Disraeli resigned office and Mr. Gladstone became Prime Minister with a Cabinet of remarkable strength; the most notable accession to it being Mr. Bright, who became President of the Board of Trade, "thus marking an epoch in Parliamentary history by the formal recognition of the extreme Radicals as a party in the State."

The Irish Church Bill was at once proceeded with, passed its second reading by thirty-three votes, and on the 26th of July, 1869, received the Royal Assent. By this measure the Protestant Church of Ireland was disestablished and disendowed, the Church Courts abolished, and the Irish bishops lost their seats in the House of Lords. The Church retained its cathedrals, churches, and parsonages; its clergy received personal compensation for their losses and life interests, and a surplus was set aside (the possessions of the Church were worth sixteen millions sterling) to relieve distress and repair unexpected disaster. It may be noted here that Lord Derby made his last speech in a debate on this measure, and died in October of the same year in which the Act was passed.

Having successfully carried through the Irish Church Bill, Mr. Gladstone now brought all his energies to bear on the question of the Tenure of Land in Ireland (February, 1870). He introduced a Bill to advance the cause of internal peace and goodwill by adjusting the relations between landlord and tenant in Ireland, by securing tenants against the loss of money spent on the improvement of their lands, and by overturning the old doctrine of the landlord's absolute and unlimited right. The Bill provided also for the establishment of special judicial machinery for carrying out its provisions. It passed with less opposition than had been anticipated, and received the Royal Assent on the 1st of August.

Two days after the introduction of the Irish Land Bill, Mr. W. E. Forster brought in his famous scheme of Elementary Education, which we have dealt with in our chapter on "The Progress of Education." *

The great measure of the Session of 1871 was the Bill for the re-organisation of the Army, brought in by Mr. Cardwell, the War Secretary; for the combination under one system of discipline of the regular troops, the militia, the volunteers and the reserves. The crucial part of the scheme, however, was the proposed abolition of the purchase system for officers' commissions, and the substitution of promotion by merit. Hitherto it had been the practice for an officer not only to purchase his first commission, but every subsequent step in regimental promotion. The legal price of commissions had been fixed by Royal Warrant, but they were sold in defiance of the letter of the law at far higher prices, which were winked at by the authorities and were termed "over-regulation prices." Mr. Cardwell proposed to buy all commissions as they fell in, at their regulation and over-regulation prices, and in future commissions were to be won by open competition or by those who had served as subalterns in the militia, or to deserving non-commissioned officers.

The whole army was up in arms! the hope of their gains was gone, and a vigorous opposition ensued. In the course of the long controversy that raged through the Session, Mr. Trevelyan cited the case of Havelock, who had said that "he was sick for

* See page 568.

years in waiting for promotion; that three sots and two fools had purchased over him, and that if he had not had a family to support he would not have served another hour." The fact was, the British army was literally held in pawn by its officers, and the nation had virtually no control over it whilst it was in that ignominious position. Not so, however, thought those who were believers in what they were pleased to call "vested interests," and so vigorous was their opposition that the Government had to throw over every section of the general scheme for army re-organisation, retaining only the purchase clauses. Then came the opposition of the House of Lords, who declined to accept those clauses unless the whole scheme of army reform was before them. Great was the joy in military circles that their original position would, as they thought, be maintained. But Mr. Gladstone had still a trump card in his hand, and he played it dexterously. He gave the go-by to Parliament by announcing that whereas army purchase had been created by Royal Warrant, it could be rendered illegal by the same means; and, therefore, he had advised the Queen to cancel the old Warrant and issue a new one.

HENRY FAWCETT.

"It was a complete victory over the House of Lords; they were forced to pass the Bill so obnoxious to them, otherwise the officers of the army would have been deprived of the compensation provided for the sums they had paid for their commissions. But the victory was very damaging to Mr. Gladstone's Government."*

Another great measure of reform, the Ballot Bill, introducing secret voting, aimed at the purifying of the electoral system, and was brought forward by Mr. W. E. Forster in 1871. Probably no subject had ever engaged the attention of Parliament so frequently as the Ballot; Radicals had persistently put it forward as a much-needed reform, Conservatives had, as persistently, opposed it as unconstitutional and un-English. It was brought before the House of Commons so early as 1708; it came into some favour with the general public at the time of the first Reform Bill (1832); later, Mr. Grote, the historian of Greece, brought in a Bill year after year without success, and then Mr. Henry Berkeley figured as the annual mover of the Ballot resolution, and carried his motion in the House of Commons in 1851 by a majority of thirty-seven.

Mr. Forster's Bill became law after much opposition and much delay, and its subsequent working has given universal satisfaction. Thus a great constitutional change was completed after a controversy of forty years, and thus elections lost all their picturesqueness—for the Act abolished public nominations. From time immemorial, to yell, shout, bawl, hoot down an obnoxious candidate and occasionally pelt him with unpleasant and unsavoury missiles, had been part of the sacred and undoubted privileges

* Sir Herbert Maxwell, Bart. M.P.

of an English mob. Even in well-regulated constituencies nomination days had been times of great festivity, especially in county elections, when the yeomen rode in procession with the bands and carriages, and fair dames, decked with the colours of their favourite candidates, formed a spectacle of much beauty and interest. But nomination days had their evil side. Elections had become a scandal and disgrace, and England was becoming too practical to care much for picturesqueness.

In 1872, Mr. Bruce, the Home Secretary, brought in a Licensing Bill, which in due course was carried, notwithstanding the opposition of the publicans, mainly through the energy and enthusiasm of Sir Wilfred Lawson, the Parliamentary leader of the total abstinence agitation. The Bill provided that the power of granting or withdrawing licenses under certain regulations should be left to the magistracy, that a register should be kept of offences committed in public-houses, that penalties for drunkenness should be increased, and that the hours during which public-houses were to remain open, both on Sundays and weekdays, should be shortened. The enforcement of the early-closing regulations gave rise at first to disturbances chiefly directed against hotels for the entertainment of "travellers;" but they were not of a serious character, and the law was enforced without great difficulty. But the publicans bore an old grudge against Mr. Gladstone which this new law revived and strengthened, and they were not slow to show their bitterness and resentment.

A year later (1873) Mr. Gladstone, whose popularity had been for some little time on the wane, introduced his Irish University Bill, which proposed to set up a secular university in Ireland, where neither theology, philosophy, nor history were to be taught—a measure which, as has been said, "while it offended and alarmed everyone deriving benefit from the existing state of things, failed to satisfy any of the religious bodies—Protestants, Catholics, or Nonconformists—which desired a change." It was in the debate on the second reading of this Bill that Disraeli rounded upon his adversary in these memorable words:—

"You have now had four years of it," he said. "You have despoiled churches; you have threatened every corporation and endowment in the country. You have examined into everybody's affairs; you have criticised every profession and vexed every trade. No one is certain of his property, and nobody knows what duties he may have to perform to-morrow. I believe the people of this country have had enough of confiscation."

Irish Catholics joined the Conservatives and the independent Liberals (led by Professor Henry Fawcett), in opposition to the measure, and the Bill was rejected by a majority of three votes. Mr. Gladstone resigned in March, but resumed office as Mr. Disraeli declined to form an administration.

At the ensuing General Election, however, early in 1874, the position of parties in the House of Commons was completely changed, the Conservatives having a majority of over fifty members. Mr. Gladstone resigned and Disraeli became Prime Minister for the second time, with Sir Stafford Northcote as Chancellor of the Exchequer, the Earl of Derby as Foreign Secretary, and Mr. Richard Assheton Cross as Home Secretary.

CHAPTER XLIII.

PAINTERS AND PICTURES OF THE CENTURY.

THE Academy of Arts originated in a Society of Artists in Peter's Court, St. Martin's Lane, which Hogarth transformed into the Society of Incorporated Artists, and their first exhibition was held in April, 1760, in the house of the Society of Arts in the Adelphi. In 1768 some of the artists seceded, and under the patronage of George III. were constituted a Royal Academy of Arts, with Sir Joshua Reynolds (1723-1792) as its first president. On his election the distinguished painter received the honour of knighthood.

The first exhibition of the Royal Academy was held in Pall Mall in 1769, when 136 pictures were exhibited, of which only three were sold; apartments were afterwards given to the Academicians in the re-built Somerset House, and the first exhibition in them was opened in May, 1780. In 1838 the Academy removed to the National Gallery in Trafalgar Square, where it remained until it was transferred in 1869 to its present home at Burlington House in Piccadilly.

SIR JOSHUA REYNOLDS.

So backward was England in the prosecution of art, that it was not until 1824 that the National Gallery—now one of the most valuable art collections in Europe—was founded by the purchase of thirty-eight pictures collected by Mr. Angerstein, of Pall Mall. For these pictures the sum of £57,000 was paid, not an exorbitant amount, when it is remembered that in 1884 £70,000—the largest sum ever given for a picture—was paid to the Duke of Marlborough for the *Madonna degli Ansidei* of Raphael.

Prior to the foundation of either the Royal Academy of Arts or the National Gallery, art in England was at a deplorably low ebb, there was no English School of Art; almost the first English painter to win any degree of popularity was Sir James Thornhill (1676-1734) whose forte was the treatment of allegorical subjects and whose chief works were the paintings in the dome of St. Paul's and the ceiling of the painted hall of Greenwich Hospital. A student in the academy of Sir James Thornhill, and afterwards his son-in-law, was William Hogarth. His first series of pictures, the "Harlot's Progress," brought his great powers fairly before the public, and for some years he continued to produce similar series of paintings and engravings which, exhibiting extraordinary powers of satire, wit, and imagination, became exceedingly popular.

Four years after the death of Hogarth (1764) a new era in art commenced with Sir Joshua Reynolds, his great rival, Thomas Gainsborough (1727-1789), and Richard

PUBLIC

Wilson (1713-1782), the eminent landscape painter, each of whom died before the present century began. These three painters were among the foundation members of the Royal Academy.

Some of their contemporaries in the Academy who rose to fame and lived into the early years of the century were Henry Fuseli (1741-1825), a Swiss by birth, who became the Academy's professor of painting—a brilliant and versatile artist; Benjamin West (1738-1830), born in Pennsylvania, who succeeded Sir Joshua Reynolds as president; John Singleton Copley (1737-1815), also an American by birth, whose "Death of Chatham" in the House of Lords* was one of his most popular works;† John Opie (1761-1807), and George Morland (1763-1804).

Among the foundation members of the Royal Academy were two lady artists, Angelica Kaufmann (1742-1807), of Swiss origin, and Mary Moser (1774-1819), also a Swiss by descent; John Flaxman (1755-1826), the sculptor, who was mainly instrumental in producing the artistic excellence of the finest of the Wedgwood pottery, and who executed in Rome those unrivalled designs from Homer, Æschylus, and Dante, on which his reputation chiefly rests; and Thomas Stothard (1755-1834) who drew between three and four thousand original designs for book illustrations, many of which appeared in the magazines of his day.

In our limited space we cannot attempt to give anything like a consecutive history of art in the nineteenth century, and must content ourselves by briefly referring to some of the artists who left their mark on their age and inaugurated periods of progress in the art world.

Reynolds and Gainsborough were succeeded by Sir Thomas Lawrence (1769-1830), who became President of the Academy. His polished portraits were much admired, and suited the taste of that day; it is said that he painted three-fourths of the nobility and gentry of England and Scotland, and many members of the English Royal Family, including Princess Charlotte, and her husband, Prince Leopold. Sir Henry Raeburn (1756-1823), the President of the Royal Society of Artists in Scotland, pressed him very hard, however, and, in his long career, painted almost every eminent Scotsman of the time.

The most "English" of all painters of this period was John Constable (1776-1837), whose splendid colouring produced a marked effect on English and even

* See page 50. † His son was the famous barrister and Chancellor, Lord Lyndhurst.

on French landscape painting. Sir David Wilkie (1785-1841) was the Father of modern British genre painting, and introduced domestic subjects with great success. The "Village Politicians," sold for thirty-five guineas, was followed by the "Blind Fidler" and the "Rent Day," until within five years his "Village Festival," now in the National Gallery, realised eight hundred guineas.

Contemporaries of Wilkie were Benjamin Robert Haydon (1786-1846), whose life as well as his work ended in tragic failure; William Etty (1787-1849), who, in his picture "Judith and Holofernes" sought, in the person of Judith, to inculcate the virtue of patriotism in self-devotion to her country, her people and her God; Alexander Nasmyth (1758-1840), a landscape painter remarkable for the simplicity and beauty of his style, and his son, Patrick Nasmyth (1786-1831), a left-handed painter, described by Sir David Wilkie as "the founder of the landscape school of Scotland and the first

Reynolds.

THE DUCHESS OF DEVONSHIRE AND LADY G. CAVENDISH.

to enrich his native land with the representation of her romantic scenery;" John Crome (1768-1821), better known as "Old Crome, of Norwich," a fanciful and delicate painter, of whose picture, "Mousehold Heath," now in the National Gallery, Mr. Redgrave, in his "Century of Painters," says "it is an illustration of how small an amount of subject may be needful for a fine picture."

In the early years of the century a great revival took place in water-colour painting, its principal exponents being David Cox (1783-1859) and Samuel Prout (1783-1858). Of the former Mr. Ruskin said that "neither David Cox nor any of this school ever had much thought or invention to disturb them. They were, themselves, a kind of contemplative cattle, and flock of the field, who merely liked being out of doors, and brought as much painted fresh air as they could back into the house with them." Of Samuel Prout, Mr. Ruskin wrote: "We owe to Prout, I believe, the first perception, and certainly the only existing expression of precisely the characters which were wanting to old art; of that feeling which results from the influence among the noble lines

of architecture, of the rent and the rust, the fissure, the lichen, and the weed, and from the writing upon the pages of ancient walls of the confused hieroglyphics of human history."

Hogarth.

THE MARRIAGE *a la Mode.*

A new era in painting, not only in oils but in water-colours—then in its infancy—began with the great landscape painter, Joseph William Mallord Turner (1775-1851), the most gifted and original of all English artists, whose genius was loudly proclaimed in 1845 and onwards by the passionate eloquence of John Ruskin and other art critics. "Turner's merit," says Mr. Ruskin, "consists neither in style, nor in want of style, nor in any other copyable or communicable quality. It consists in this—that from the time he was ten years old till he was seventy, he never passed a day, and seldom an hour, without obtaining the accurate knowledge of some great natural fact; and, never forgetting anything he once knew, he keeps expressing this enormous and accumulated knowledge more and more redundantly till his death; so that you cannot understand one line of his work until you know the fact it represents, nor any part of the merit or wonderfulness of his work till you have obtained a commensurate part of the knowledge which it contains."*

BEER STREET. *Hogarth.*

* "While Turner has laboured as the Prophet of Nature to make us perceive her beauty and sublimity, Ruskin in no less degree has wrought as the Apostle to make us comprehend her truths. To these two Art-souls the world is more indebted than the present generation may confess." Art Hints, by J. J. Jarves.

Unfortunately Turner was reckless as to the fate of his pictures, and even Mr. Ruskin, his otherwise unqualified eulogist, admits that some of them were seen in perfection not longer than a month after being painted, and that some of them cracked in the Academy rooms. "The fact of his using means so imperfect," he says, "together with that of the utter neglect of the pictures in his own gallery, are a phenomenon in the human mind which appears to me utterly inexplicable, and both are without excuse."

Among the painters of the first half of the century may be mentioned William Mulready (1786-1863) one of whose best known pictures probably is "The Seven Ages of Man;" Charles Robert Leslie (1794-1859) professor of painting to the Royal Academy in 1848, and painter of the "Coronation of the Queen;" William Dyce (1806-1864) the first man chosen to decorate the new Houses of Parliament with paintings in fresco, the subject assigned to him being the "Baptism of King Ethelbert;" Daniel Maclise (1811-1870) who painted the enormous picture in the Royal Gallery of the House of Lords, "The Meeting between Wellington and Blücher after Waterloo;" and "The Death of Nelson at Trafalgar."

CONSTABLE.

The most popular animal-painter of the century was Sir Edwin Landseer (1802-1873). The great distinction between Landseer and other animal painters in their treatment of animals is the amount of human sentiment and sympathy which, rightly or wrongly, Landseer has given to his animals; but this infused human element has not interfered with the finest perception of animal nature, whether in the high-bred cherished race-horse or in its wretched cab-drawing brother, in fleet greyhound and sleek spaniel, or in sagacious sheep-dog and faithful terrier, in monkey or in wolf, in lion or in hare.* Mr. E. T. Cook points out that Landseer's love of animals is shewn in nothing more than in his insistence always upon the nobler side of sport, which, just as war calls out heroism in man, calls out heroism in animals.‡

One of the greatest reactions in art during the century occurred in 1848, when a number of young students, among whom were Ford Madox Brown, Dante Gabriel Rossetti, William Holman Hunt, John Everett Millais, and William Bell Scott, founded the Pre-Raphaelite Brotherhood, and published, in 1849, the *Germ*, a small magazine devoted to the exposition of the new creed, *i.e.*, the encouragement and enforcement of an entire adherence to the simplicity of nature. What they proposed was set forth by Mr. Ruskin in the *Times* as follows: "They intend to return to early days in this point only, that, as far as in them lies, they will draw either what they see, or what they suppose might have been the actual facts of the scene they desire to represent,

* Modern Painters, by S. Tytler. ‡ Handbook to National Gallery.

irrespective of any conventional rules of picture-making, and they have chosen their unfortunate, though not inaccurate, name because all artists did this before Raphael's time, and after Raphael's time did not this, but sought to paint fair pictures, rather than to represent stern facts, of which the consequence has been that from Raphael's time to this day historical art has been in acknowledged decadence."

The extravagancies of Pre-Raphaelitism which marred its introduction have long since disappeared, and it is now generally acknowledged that its mission in the hands of gifted men has been most useful to art, influencing it widely to the ends of greater truthfulness and greater individuality, and of greater simplicity and earnestness.

Constable.

FLATFORD MILL.

Of the works of Holman Hunt the most famous are the "Light of the World," one of the noblest allegories ever painted; the "Scape-Goat," the "Shadow of the Cross," and, most wonderful and most famous of all, "Christ in the Temple." John Everett Millais, one of the most popular painters of the century (1829-1896), at the age of eleven became a student of the Royal Academy, and obtained the Silver Medal in each school; and at seventeen he exhibited his first picture in the Royal Academy, "Pizzarro seizing the Inca of Peru." From 1850 to 1855 Millais remained faithful to the Pre-Raphaelite Brotherhood, then he broke loose from their restraints, and became Royal Academician in 1863; was decorated with the Legion of Honour in 1878; and a Baronetcy was conferred upon him in 1885. In 1887 there was exhibited at the Grosvenor Gallery a large and representative collection of his works, embracing his earliest and his latest styles, and illustrating "his emancipation from the trammels of

Pre-Raphaelitism." One of his works which electrified the art-loving public by its unsurpassable truth was "Chill October," a charming landscape in exquisitely subdued tones, and then followed a number of works which will remain popular for many years to come, such as "A Yeoman of the Guard," "The North-West Passage," "The Crown of Love," "Blow, Blow, thou Winter Wind," &c. In 1896, crowned with honour, love, obedience, and troops of friends, Millais passed away, and was buried with great pomp in St. Paul's Cathedral. He had been for a few months President of the Royal Academy.

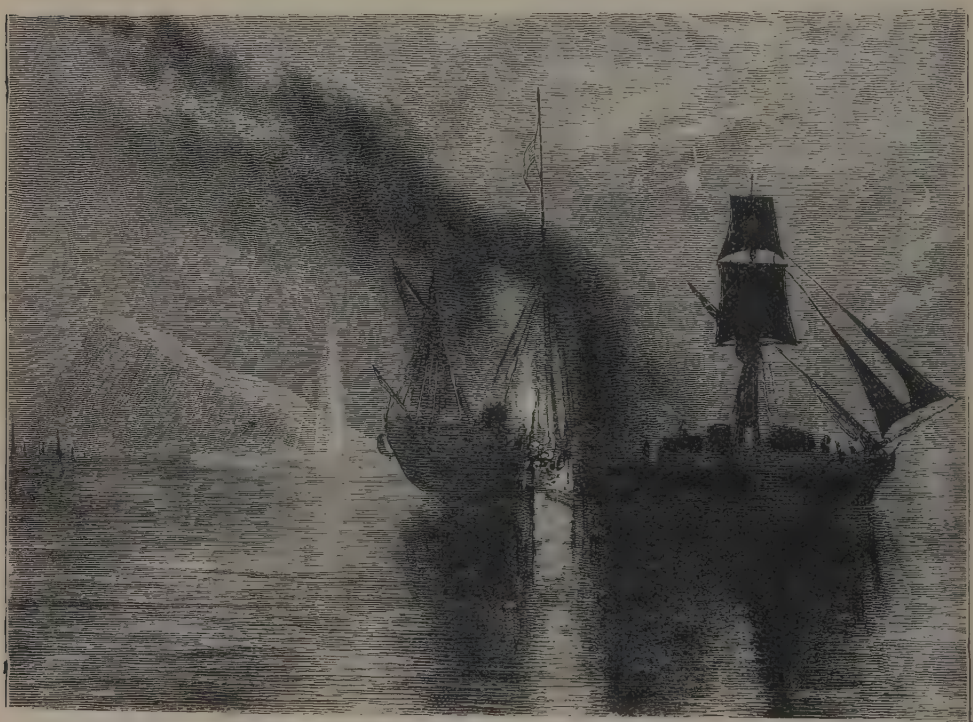
One of the most widely honoured and revered painters of the later half of the century is Mr. G. F. Watts, the greatest idealist in contemporary British art. He was born in London in 1818, exhibited at the Royal Academy in 1837, and began his career as a historical painter, obtaining from the Commissioners for the Decoration of

Wilkie.

THE BLIND FIDDLER.

the Houses of Parliament prizes of £300 and £500 respectively for his "Caractacus" and "Alfred Inciting the Saxons to Maritime Enterprise." He was also commissioned to paint "St. George and the Dragon" for Westminster Palace and a large fresco in illustration of the history of justice entitled "The School of Legislation" for Lincoln's Inn. It was not by works such as these, however, but by his biblical, mythological and ideal subjects, and by his marvellous portraits, that he was to leave his permanent mark on the art of his generation. Mr. Watts believed, to use his own words, that "Art should in one way or another always express our highest ideals as we see or realise them—as we see them at our best moments—and it should always have a religious or ethical purpose." Referring to his own works he said, "I paint ideas, not objects." Among his important pictures are "Time, Death, and Judgment," "The Happy Warrior," the "Angel of Death," "Hope," &c. He is one of the most subtle and powerful of portrait painters, and has redeemed that art from the charge of decay in our days. Among his successful portraits are Tennyson, Browning, Millais, Sir John Lawrence, Gladstone, and Cardinal Manning.

Sir Edward Burne-Jones (1833-1898) was intended for Holy Orders, but impressed by the teachings of William Morris and Dante Gabriel Rossetti, he left his university without taking his degree, and devoted himself to a career in art. That career was marked by a silent and unconscious protest against the most striking tendencies of the modern world, while his methods were as far removed as were his conceptions from those of the prevailing fashion. He drew his finest inspirations from the Bible, from romantic legend, and from classical story; and his pictures, according to his friend and master, Rossetti, exhibit "gorgeous variegation of colour, sustained pitch of imagination, and restful, sorrowful beauty, all conspiring to make them not only unique in English work, but in the work of all times and nations." Among his most important pictures



BURIAL OF WILKIE. (*After Turner*).

were "The Mirror of Venus" (sold for 3,750 guineas); the "Beguiling of Merlin" (sold for 3,780 guineas); the "Golden Stair;" the "Annunciation;" the "Briar Rose" (a series of four pictures). He was a master in the art of water-colour drawings, among which were "The Wine of Circe" and "Love among the Ruins," and was a designer of cartoons for stained-glass windows. He died in 1898, and was buried in Rottingdean Churchyard, near Brighton.

Mr. Laurens Alma-Tadema, a Dutchman, born in 1836, was intended for the law, but studied instead in the Academy of Antwerp, and in 1861 produced his first important work, the "Education of the Children of Clovis," which, according to one of his critics, contains most of the characteristics that have made Tadema famous:—"It has the Dutch minuteness of detail, the careful adherence to facts, the determination to give historical accuracy as well as accuracy in the matter of accessories, purity of colour, and skill in

the grouping of figures." In his later works he has "caused to rise from the dead" ancient Rome, Greece, and Egypt in such splendid pictures as "Tarquinius Superbus," "Phidias and the Elgin Marbles," "Egyptians 3,000 years ago," and "The Death of the First-born." Although Tadema draws almost exclusively from the life and history of the past, he is essentially modern, or, as M. Chesneau says, "he invests antiquity with the familiar gait, gestures, movements, and attitudes of to-day." In 1870 Mr. Tadema came to England to reside permanently, and married an English lady, distinguished as a painter of children; in 1876 he became R.A., and later received the honour of knighthood. Sir Laurens Alma-Tadema paints marble with a skill that probably no other artist has ever achieved.

Sir Frederic Leighton (afterwards Lord Leighton) (1830-1896) was a thorough artist; whatever he did was at infinite pains; he was a profound student of anatomy, and had learned the science from his father, Dr. Leighton, with such success that "as a boy

Old Crome.

MOUSEHOLD HEATH.

he could draw the human or animal skeleton, as well as the muscles which cover it, from memory, without the least hesitation, and without the slightest mistake;" he was such a master of detail that, if he was painting a snake, he would reproduce every scale with marvellous fidelity and skill; he was so industrious that there were sometimes as many as six or seven of his works, each a masterpiece of technical skill, rich imagination and persistent industry, in the annual exhibition of the Royal Academy. It is impossible, therefore, to enumerate even his greatest pictures, much less the 120 he produced between 1855 and 1896. Many classical and biblical subjects treated by Leighton will be remembered by everyone interested in art. The "Death of Psyche," the "Return of Persephone," "Perseus and Andromeda," the "Garden of Hesperides," the "Star of Bethlehem," "Jezebel and Ahab," "Elijah in the Wilderness," and the "Sea giving up its Dead." Sir Frederic Leighton became President of the Royal Academy (1878) and

received the honour of knighthood; in 1886 he was created a baronet, and later was raised to the peerage. Lord Leighton was an ideal President of the Royal Academy. He was master of the art of employing to purpose every hour of his time; he was a painter in oils, in water-colours, and in fresco; he was a sculptor of no mean order; as an orator he charmed all who heard him; as a linguist he was fluent in French, German, and Italian; he was a devout lover of music, and his courtesy and charm of manner were proverbial. He died in 1896, and was buried in St. Paul's Cathedral.

Mr. J. C. Hook, R.A., born 1819, began his art-career by painting historical pictures, but his true fame commenced in 1854, when he paid a visit to Clovelly, in North Devon, from which year he gave his time and talent to the study of sea-scapes and coast life. He made a great mark in popular esteem by "A Coast Boy Gathering Eggs," while his "Luff, boy!" drew from Mr. Ruskin the verdict "A glorious picture! most glorious!" For many years he exhibited startlingly graphic pictures of restless seas and

Turner.

THE OLD TÉMÉRAIRE.

breezy skies and happy though perilous sea-faring life, and his "Jolly as a Sand Boy," "Between Tides," and many others are as characteristic of our English coast scenery as they are "vivid, various, and harmonious" in art.

For homely pathos and solemn simple feeling, combined with honest and excellent painting, the works of Thomas Faed (born 1826) have attracted much attention. His "Mitherless Bairn," which Mr. Ruskin described as "common-place Wilkieism," and "From Dawn to Sunset," were very popular, and year by year his annual picture in the Academy has had power to draw tears from sympathetic eyes. Perhaps no picture of modern times has, however, touched the fountain of tears more successfully than Mr. Luke Fildes' famous painting "The Doctor."

The historical scenes from Eastern history painted by Mr. Edwin Long (born 1839) brought him a high reputation and provoked much interesting discussion. Among his more important works may be mentioned the "Babylonian Marriage Market," "Gods and their Makers," "Esther and Vashti," "Anno Domini," and "Why tarry the wheels of his Chariots."

Edward John Poynter (born 1836) gained much favour by his "Israel in Egypt," exhibited in 1867, and the "Catapult" in 1868, while his reputation was sustained by the cartoons for the mosaic of "St. George" in Westminster Palace. Among his well-known works are "Perseus and Andromeda," "The Golden Age," "Atalanta's Race," "Zenobia Captive," and "Faithful unto Death." In 1897 he received the honour of knighthood; he was the first Slade Professor of Art at University College, London, and was for some years Director of Art at South Kensington. On the death of Sir J. E. Millais he became President of the Royal Academy.

Mulready.

THE SEVEN AGES OF MAN.

We must not close this chapter without a reference to Wood-engraving, an art that with the rise of the great illustrated newspapers and magazines has exercised an extraordinary influence on the artistic taste of the nation, and has given effect to marvellous developments in all kinds of black and white.

Wood-engraving has been from its birth the people's art in an eminent degree. At present the ease and cheapness of its processes, the variety of its applications and its wide-spread use in scientific and artistic illustration make it one of the most accessible sources of inexpensive pleasure, and a most powerful instrument of popular education. "It imparts a large share of the visual knowledge which the people have of the thing they have not directly seen; it portrays the humours of the day; it assists the imagination, and it sometimes generates in the better-endowed minds a real sympathy with the higher products of art." *

* "A History of Wood-engraving." By George Woodberry, New York.

Sir E. Burne-Jones.
THE GOLDEN STAIR.

Thomas Bewick (1753-1825) was the founder of the art of modern Wood-engraving. George Cruikshank (1792-1878) began his career as a designer and engraver by caricatures which were almost entirely political satires and lampoons of the fashions. Then came his etchings for Grimm's "Goblins," "Boz," "Oliver Twist," and "The Tower of London." Finally, impressed by the terrible fate of an early friend, he published a series of eight prints entitled "The Bottle," which with "The Gin Trap," "Sunday in London," and the "Gin Juggernaut," were intended, probably with Hogarth's example in his mind, to be great moral lessons against the evils of strong drink. Later in life he began to paint in oils, and among other works produced the gigantic picture 13 ft. 4 in. × 7 ft. 8 in. and containing 800 figures called "The Worship of Bacchus." Rossetti wrote of this work:—"The man who in his old age occupies himself for nearly three years in painting this homily on canvas, to the most negative of results in point of art, deserves respect."

John Leech (1817-1864) earned his fame during the eighteen years in which he furnished his admirable sketches to the pages of *Punch*. "Nothing was more characteristic of Leech, and nothing was more enjoyable in his work, than the evident

genial sympathy with which he entered into every phase of the many-sided English life of the hunting-field, the sea-side, the ball-room, the drawing-room, the nursery, while he faithfully represented (not without a touch of idealism, for he had, what may well belong to a humourist, but what scarcely finds place in a caricaturist, a fine feeling for beauty) the grace as well as the fresh charm of high-bred English girls, who were never better given than by Leech.*

Between the years 1860-1880 a cluster of men laid their pencils down at the bidding of death, full early for their renown to become established much beyond the immediate circle of their friends, and of whom only brief and fugitive notices remain to indicate the manner of men they were and the character of the work they did. The names of Frederick Walker, George John Pinwell, Frederick Eltze, J. M. Lawless, Cecil

Hook.

CAUGHT BY THE TIDE.

Lawson, C. H. Bennett, and Randolph Caldecott are amongst those who finished their work all too soon. They were contemporaneous with Leighton, Millais, Herkomer, Holman Hunt, Leech, Tenniel, Keene, Fildes, and Du Maurier; the first fruits of whose pencils appeared in *Once a Week*, the *Cornhill Magazine*, *Good Words*, and the *Sunday Magazine*. Five years later the *Graphic* appeared (December 4th, 1869), and the pages of that popular journal were enriched with the earliest as well as the best productions of these artists. Among the pages of these periodicals the art student must search for the first signs of those new departures identified with certain of the names mentioned. We can only refer specifically to two of these artists.

Mr. Luke Fildes, R.A., whose picture "The Doctor," exhibited in the Academy of 1891 has, as we have said, been one of the most popular of recent years, had his first great chance in life in 1869, when the *Graphic* was founded, and its genial editor requested him to do "something good" for the first number. The black and white sketch he sent in—afterwards elaborated into a large canvas exhibited in the Academy

* Tytler.

of 1874—was "Applicants for Admission to a Casual Ward." The publication of the sketch in the *Graphic* led to his becoming the illustrator of the last novel of Charles Dickens, "The Mystery of Edwin Drood."

In like manner the start of Professor Hubert Herkomer, R.A., was on the *Graphic*. After having been repulsed somewhat rudely by a firm of art publishers to whom he submitted a sketch, he tried the *Graphic*, and happily for English art, the editor not only accepted it ("Gipsies on Wimbledon Common,") but said "he would be very glad to take any amount of such good work."

Time would fail even to furnish a mere list of the names of the noble army of artists whose contributions to the Art departments of our great publishing houses have been amongst the most remarkable and most beautiful works of the century.

Foynter.

FAITHFUL UNTO DEATH.

CHAPTER XLIV.

SPORTS AND PASTIMES OF THE CENTURY.

WE have referred in an earlier chapter to the national sports and pastimes in vogue when the century opened;* we will now glance at some of the developments of the old recreations and the introduction of new ones.

Sport has become within the last quarter of the century almost a mania, and many wise men have begun to inquire whether there should not be a vigorous endeavour to check its advance. The question is being seriously discussed, as the century closes, not only in our current literature, in the pulpit, and on the platform, but by schoolmasters themselves, whether the intellectual is not giving place to the merely muscular, and whether our schools and colleges are not rather institutions for the training of athletes than for the higher purposes of life. On the one hand there are those who contend that it is not the merely physical value of athletic games that is their highest good, but that the pluck, the energy, the perseverance, the good temper, the self-control, the discipline, the co-operation, the *esprit de corps* which merit success in cricket or football are the very qualities which win the day in the great game of life. On the other hand there are those who consider that our young men are ready to sacrifice everything to sport, devoting to it an amount of time and enthusiasm out of proportion to that expended on their work, and that their thoughts are so coloured and moulded by it as to unfit them for the serious duties and pursuits of practical life.

A significant fact in relation to sport is the abundant literature that has come into existence on the subject. The reader has only to glance through the pages of Mudie's catalogue to see that there is not a single pastime that has not a volume, or it may be many volumes, devoted to its exposition, while sporting journals, and columns in every issue of the daily newspapers, bear testimony to the universial passion for sports and pastimes.

Experts in athletics have poured forth from the press innumerable books, pamphlets, and articles on the preservation of health and the development of muscle. One of the latest of these writers is Mr. Eugen Sandow, "the strong man," who asserts that the first step towards the preservation of health and strength is a knowledge of physiology and anatomy. His golden rule is "If you want to be strong, do not eat too much. Nothing shortens life and minimises power as the almost universal habit of taking too much food." He recommends sleeping in a warm room and bathing in cold water twice a day, morning and evening. The alpha and omega of his system of training is the right use of dumb-bells. "If you wish to be strong," he says, "do not overstrain yourself; develop your muscles by the easiest and lightest exercise. Muscular action by accelerating the circulation and increasing the absorption of nutritive materials, assists the regenerative process, and wards off disease. By a constant use of dumb-bells any man of average strength can bring his muscles to the highest possible development." He regards "bicycling from the point of view of exercise, as superior to walking," "but," he adds, "the rider should see to it that his seat and handles are so adjusted as to enable him to ride upright." †

* See page 22.

† The Cosmopolitan, June, 1894.

Among the sports and pastimes that have exercised the greatest influence on the life of the century may be mentioned that oldest of all amusements, horse-racing, never more popular than it is now, when it has the fullest sanction of royalty, of the nobility, and even of Prime Ministers. It is the sport which more than any other is characteristic of the nation. Let but a few Englishmen assemble in any quarter of the globe, it has been said, and it may be safely predicted that one of their first considerations will be to organise a horse race. One of the great drawbacks to racing is its intimate connection with betting, and another its extreme costliness.

Some very big bets have been recorded over the Derby. So far as figures go the largest stake ever landed by any one man was by Mr. Chaplin (President of the Local Government Board, 1900), over Hermit, in 1867, when his account showed a balance of something like £150,000, all of which, however, he did not receive. The person who got the most money, paid £100,000 over to his bankers when Macaroni won the Derby in 1863. Mr. Merry, the Scottish ironmaster, was popularly supposed to have won £100,000 over Thormanby on the Derby, and Sir Joseph Hawley won £70,000 on Teddington.

The costliness of the sport may be gathered from the following :—The race-horse Ormonde cost £31,500 ; St. Blaise and Galtee More £21,000 apiece. A colt foal by St. Florian was recently sold for 1,160 guineas. A jockey winning one of the classic events would be by no means surprised at a £1,000 note put into his hand. Sloan, the American jockey, was paid £5,000 for the first call upon his services.

Hunting, another of our oldest sports, is still a passion with those who can afford it. Wellington affirmed that "amongst his best Peninsular officers were those who had most distinguished themselves in the hunting field ; courage and decision being the necessary attributes of success in the chase."

Grouse, partridge, pheasant, and other kinds of shooting still hold their own, as they ever will, among our national sports. During the century, however, a system has grown up to which a well-known writer thus refers :—"Whether we have improved as sportsmen may be questioned, if we look at the custom, now become common, of collecting together within narrow bounds large quantities of game artificially reared and semi-domesticated, which has tended greatly of late to destroy the taste for real sport amongst the upper orders, and at the same time to crowd the gaols from the lower ranks of society. No pursuit deserves the title of sport which taxes nothing beyond the organ of destruction in those who follow it. The battue system, in which hundreds of pheasants reared almost by the hand of the keeper, and scores of hares enclosed within nets, are driven into the very faces of sportsmen placed in advantageous positions, and slaughtered by wholesale with the smallest possible expenditure of trouble to the slayers, may be styled in newspaper paragraphs 'glorious day's sport,' but has certainly nothing in common with that description of sport which brings into play the qualities of energy, perseverance, endurance of fatigue, great self command, and calmness of nerve in times of difficulty, and which has given to the national character its title to respect, in the sportsman by flood and field at home, and the warrior abroad."

Cricket, the king of all the sports of England, whose rules were not codified until late in the last century, has made extraordinary advances. Once appreciated by comparatively few, it is now considered to be "bad form" to be ignorant of the names of

the great players and their latest successes and failures. The names of Grace, Ranjitsinhji, Abel, are as familiar as those of Salisbury, Gladstone, and Chamberlain, and the cries of newspaper boys shouting the result of a day's cricket attract as much attention as the news of a British victory in South Africa or elsewhere. There is no "sight" in London more characteristic of the nation than "Lords," Kennington Oval, or the Crystal Palace on the day of a great match, and none that excites greater wonder in the minds of intelligent foreigners who visit our shores.

It is not necessary to describe cricket in this place, or to furnish any record of great events. It may be said, however, that cricket remains the finest of all our national sports, despite the professional element that has come into it that it remains the purest, inasmuch as the hand of the betting man is not seen, and there are no records during the last fifty years of foul play in this country. "The game does not lend itself to sharp practice, and the betting shark has to turn to more profitable investments."

"Football," says the author of "Tom Brown's School-days," "is more than a game: it is an institution." Once it was played only on Shrove Tuesday, with goals several miles apart, and with one simple rule for the guidance of the players—"whichever side gets the ball to the goal first, wins." In those days the game was described as "a bloody and murtherous practice rather than a fellowly sport or pastime."

Up to the year 1860 there was not a football club, worthy of the name, in the whole metropolitan area. In a little more than a quarter of a century it has become as much the national game of Englishmen for winter as cricket is for summer. Football is a more excellent game for men with limited time at their disposal than cricket; it is a game of rapid changes, and, unlike cricket, of few waits and intervals; it gives employment to all the players in almost equal proportions, and it entails little or no expense for outfit. Into the merits of the rival games of "Rugby" and "Association" we shall not enter, but on football generally we may say, in the words of a writer on the subject, "If for nothing else football is worthy of encouragement from the lessons of discipline it inculcates. A player who thinks only for himself has no place in the football economy; utter abnegation of self is an absolute essential to the formation of a good player. There is no royal road to football success: it is only by the force of sheer work and co-operation that the highest order of merit is attained. The self-control, the loyalty, the promptitude of action which are requisite for football excellence are by no means useless arms in the battle of life."

An evil—and an increasing one—has grown up with regard to football, cricket, and other manly sports, namely, professionalism, which turns a game from a true sport into a mere exhibition or a matter of business. Sport should not be pursued as an end in itself, but as a means to an end, and to attempt to make a business of it is the first step in the direction of professionalism. The real value of athletics is in the preparatory training rather than in the contest or in the prize, and even this is carried to so great an excess that it is a question, indeed, if many of our so-called amateurs, who devote so much of their time to the practice of athletics, do not belong to the professional class.

Until the second half of the century it was impossible to conceive the bicycle, for there were not in the world the necessary appliances for its construction. Taking advantage of the discovery of new materials, as well as the invention of new processes of manufacture, the cycle has become a marvel of strength and lightness, of ingenuity and invention—in short one of the chief marvels of modern industry.

The great stages in the growth of cycling may be described thus :—In 1870 it was the amusement of a few whimsical enthusiasts; in 1880 it had become a growing pleasure for the middle classes; in 1890 it was a national pastime; in 1900 it has passed from the region of luxury to that of necessity.

The advantages of the cycle are innumerable; it is better than a horse to ninety-nine people out of a hundred because it costs practically nothing to keep, is always ready when wanted, and is never tired. It will take its rider three or four times as far as a horse in the same number of days or weeks; it is an inestimable boon to ladies when shopping, as it stands beside the kerb of the road without requiring the services of a boy to hold its head; to parsons, on their pastoral visits, to doctors, who can, in cases of emergency, reach their patients before the horse could have been harnessed, to mechanics, factory hands, and clerks, who by its agency are enabled to live in healthier homes at cheaper rates several miles from their work, and the journey hither and thither is made a pleasure rather than a drudgery. Moreover, in developing a love for country life it tends to counteract that tendency of the population to concentrate itself in cities—a tendency that has been steadily growing in recent years, and is fraught with many evils.

The freedom and independence of the recreation have been well put by a wheeler: "You have your cycle, and the road from the front of your door leads to the uttermost parts of Great Britain, and to every part of whatever county you may want to reach."

With regard to posture in riding a well-known cyclist wrote: "If cyclists would only understand how very much better they look, and the better tone it gives the sport by sitting upright and looking the world in the face, those who crouch like monkeys would be scoffed off the road by righteous scorn."

Military cycling was first instituted in 1887 as "a means of conveying infantry with greater rapidity, without noise, and without throwing up large columns of dust, a further distance than by any other means available." The important part it has since played in all our military engagements, at home and abroad, is matter of history.

The cycle trade has sprung up from a most insignificant beginning to gigantic dimensions in an incredibly short space of time and has become one of the leading industries of the country.

Lawn tennis, which came in like a lion is believed by many to be going out like a lamb. Whether that be so or not the fascinating game has been successful in revolutionising the life of the suburbs of our great cities, has promoted much social enjoyment, and has banished from our gardens the old fashioned "beds" for good sized and well kept tennis lawns. It is to be hoped the game has come to stay, for no one will gainsay the statement that "as a healthful form of exercise which puts in use every muscle of the body without an injurious strain; as a school of training for nerve, judgment, and quick thought; and finally as a sport which generates the keenest spirit of rivalry, tennis has no superior."

The Royal and ancient game of golf was the chief recreation of the Scottish people for centuries, but until a comparatively few years ago was regarded in England, America, and the Colonies as "merely a mild recreation for old men with bad livers."

It was probably an awakening to the fact that golf was, after all, a real branch of athletics, says an American writer,* that brought about its sudden and extraordinary

* Mr. H. J. Whigham, Amateur Champion of the United States, 1896.

popularity in England a dozen years ago. "The conversion of the South began when many of the prominent cricketers discarded the bat to take up the golf club. Having for many years disparaged the Scotch game, they at length discovered that it only required a single trial to become enamoured of it. Moreover, it became apparent that for those who had left college, and settled down to a regular profession, cricket was a vain and elusive pursuit, making far too strenuous demands upon time to come within the reach of most, while golf could be freely enjoyed by all who were able to spare an occasional afternoon. No sooner, therefore, were the floodgates opened, than the new waters threatened to inundate the whole field of English sport. Cricketers, tennis

GOLF.

players, crack-shots, were among the proselytes. Heretofore, in Scotland, an inland links was exceedingly rare, but now they sprang up in every county in Great Britain. Old lawns, on whose immemorial turf it had been reckoned a sin even to walk, were ruthlessly hacked to pieces by the iron of the golfing tyro; the cattle were robbed of their pasturelands in order that the putting-greens should not be disturbed; and last, but not least, the Sabbath was freely violated by men and women who had never before missed a morning service in church."

Turning now to aquatics, the Universities' Boat-race still creates an interest and speculation second only to that exerted by the Epsom Derby. The first challenge was given in 1829, and it established a new era in boating and in the life of the river. The

first race, rowed from Westminster Bridge to Putney, in eight-oared cutters, resulted in a victory to Cambridge. The course is now from Putney to Mortlake, a little over four and a quarter miles, and the time occupied in rowing it is usually from just under twenty minutes to twenty-three minutes.

Boating has become one of the cheapest, as it is one of the most popular, pastimes. In a recent work on "The Cost of Sport," we are told that if a man be a member of a rowing club he can get as much practice as he wants for £10 a year; or he can hire a mahogany double-sculling skiff on the Thames for £16 for the entire season, or several pounds less if the boat is not new. For £15 he can buy a Rob Roy canoe complete, or for £9 a Canadian canoe; or he can hire a canoe for the season for a £5 note. On the other hand he will pay anything from £60 up to £700 for an electric launch—if the use of such a thing can under any circumstances be designated "sport." An average houseboat will cost from £150 to £1,000 to build, and from twenty to forty guineas a month to hire.

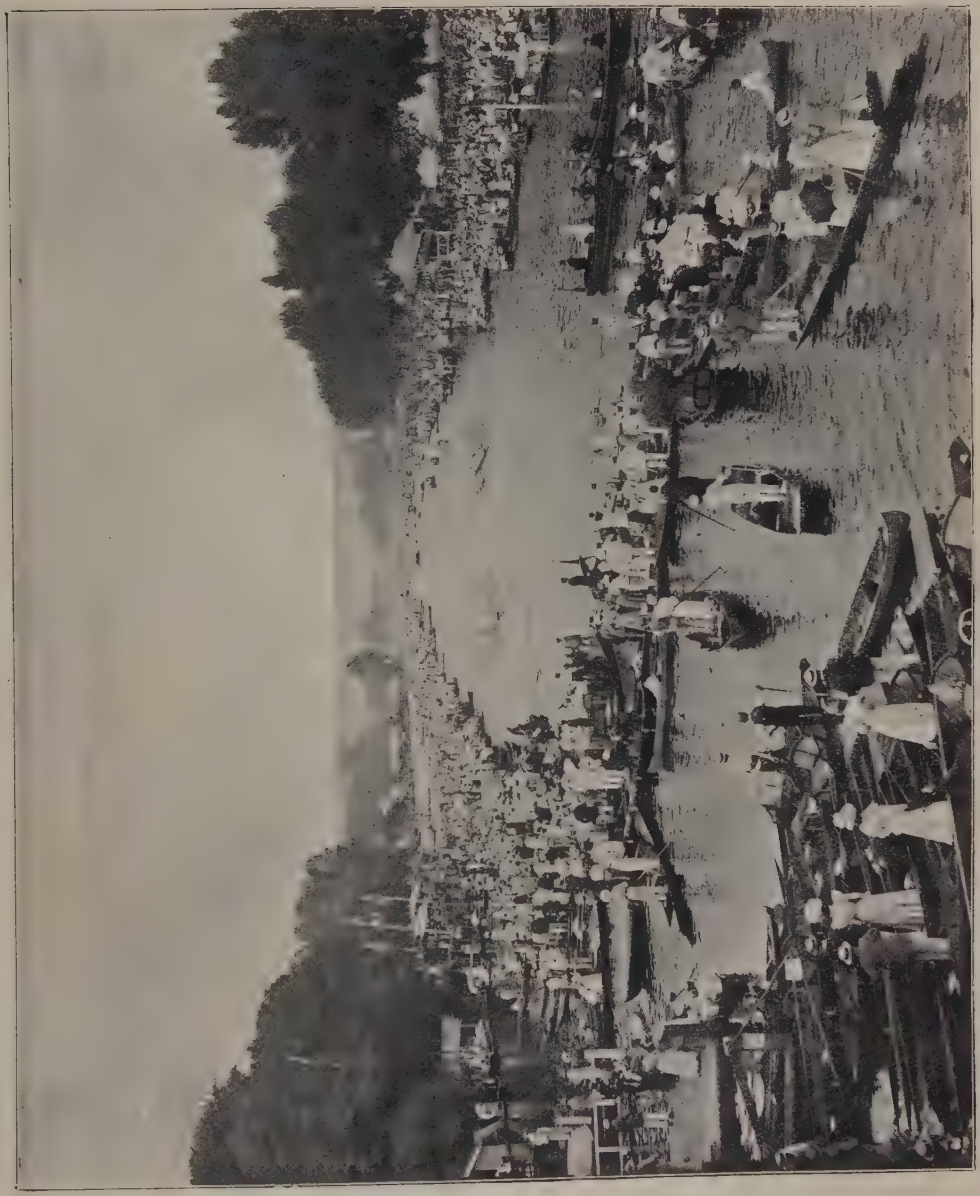
"Camping out" has become one of the adjuncts of aquatic sport. It gratifies the longing which every one at some time or other has felt, of living, if only for a few days, a gipsy or Robinson Crusoe kind of life. It has an educational value as the camper-out has to "rough it;" must be dexterous; should know the elements of cooking; must learn to put up with discomforts; and, as a rule, gets more fresh air than in any other recreation. It is moreover an inexpensive luxury—if that be a consideration—provided that the adventurers dispense with elegancies. The greatest possible care should be taken, however, to avoid paying the heavy price of a bout of rheumatism to which camping out is undoubtedly conducive.

Of Swimming, the late Sir Morell Mackenzie wrote that its value as an hygienic exercise can be shown in many ways. "In the first place," he says, "the art requires the inhalation of a very large quantity of air. Taking 1 as the standard of the amount of air inhaled when lying down, the following table shows the amount inspired in other positions and movements:—In lying, 1; in sitting, 1·18; in standing, 1·33; in walking one mile an hour, 1·90; in walking two miles an hour, 2·76; in walking three miles an hour, 3·23; in carrying 34lbs., 3·50; in carrying 63lbs., 3·84; in swimming, 4·33. Inhaling so much air, a large amount of carbonic acid gas is exhaled. In addition to this effect, there is no exercise except rowing which calls into play so many muscles at the same time."

A great advance has been made in the cultivation of aquatic sports even during the last decade of the century. The importance of swimming has been discussed as it never has been before, and in all our large cities and their suburbs swimming baths have been built, and many new clubs and other organisations instituted. Seeing that the estimated number of persons drowned annually round the coast of the United Kingdom and in our inland waters, through inability to swim, is reckoned at between 6,000 and 7,000, independent of losses at sea, it was high time that extended action should be taken. Life-saving societies have been established, and life-saving demonstrations and competitions are held annually; the School Boards have taken up the question of swimming; water polo has become very popular, and the contests for the championships are keenly followed.

To revive any sport that has been "played out" is always a difficult matter, and it is generally a long time before it "catches on" again. During the last decade, however,

a successful attempt has been made to revive hockey, a fine old English game; croquet, a poor spiritless pastime; and baseball, which has been claimed by the sixty millions of people across the Atlantic as their national game. The latter is an excellent recreation, short enough for the brief hours of a winter half-holiday; the rules are simple, the material required cheap, and there is scarcely any other game so interesting to watch.



HENLEY REGATTA.

Yachting, international yacht racing, falconry, alpine climbing, big game hunting, and other adventurous and expensive sports, although mainly pursued by Englishmen, cannot be regarded as "national," and we shall therefore refer our readers to the abundant literature in existence on these subjects.

CHAPTER XLV.

IRELAND.

1870-1900.

AFTER the failure of his Irish Universities Bill,* Mr. Gladstone resumed power with a less cohesive party, and his majority was reduced by the defeat of the Liberal candidates at several bye-elections. For a time the course of events in Ireland was not marked by any striking occurrences, but, without much demonstration, landlordism had grown more and more oppressive, and rack-renting and evictions had become more frequent. A great movement was however in progress, and a change was soon to pass over the whole Irish Question.

In May, 1870, a meeting was held in Dublin attended by notable Irishmen representative of all classes and of all phases of political and religious opinion, to discuss the position of affairs in Ireland, and to consider a course of action that should obtain for that country some measure of self-government. This was the beginning of the Home Rule Movement which was destined, after fifteen years of storm and struggle, to cause the overthrow of a strong English Ministry and "to bring the Irish demand for national independence very definitely within the sphere of practical politics."

The leader of the new movement was Mr. Isaac Butt, who had begun life as a Conservative. He was a Protestant, a skilful and subtle lawyer, and unrivalled for eloquence at the Irish Bar. He was then, at the age of fifty-five, in the fulness of his power, and at the Dublin meeting, in an eloquent and brilliant speech, he carried with enthusiasm the famous resolution, "That the establishment of an Irish Parliament with full control over our domestic affairs is the only remedy for the evils of Ireland."

What the Home Rulers asked for has been defined by one of the historians of the movement as "a separate government for Ireland still allied with the Imperial government on principles such as those which regulated the alliance between the United States of America. The proposed Irish Parliament in College Green would have much the same relation to the Parliament at Westminster, that the legislature of every American State has to the supreme authority of Congress in the Capitol at Washington. All that related to local business it was proposed to delegate to the Irish Assembly, all questions of Imperial policy were still to be left to the Imperial Government."† "There was nothing very startling, very daringly innovating in this scheme," he adds. "In most of the dependencies of Great Britain, Home Rule schemes of some kind were already established. In Canada, in the Australian Colonies, the principle might be seen at work upon a large scale; upon a small scale it was to be studied nearer home in the neighbouring Isle of Man."

The movement spread with wonderful rapidity in Ireland and was opposed in England by statesmen, journalists, and politicians generally with a vigorous indignation. The general election of 1874 resulted in the return of about sixty members for Irish constituences, all avowed Home Rulers, although of a much more moderate type than

* See page 600.

† "Ireland Since the Union." By Justin Huntly McCarthy, M.P.

were afterwards to be found among their numbers. But even they were in advance of the mild methods of Mr. Butt their leader, whose efforts "kindly, unassuming, and childlike," did not long please the foremost men in the agitation, and they cried out for a stronger, more determined, and more thorough-going leader.

With the hour came the man. Shortly after the general election of 1874 a comparatively unknown man, Mr. Charles Stewart Parnell, a member of the "same family as the poet Parnell, and the two Parnells, father and son, John and Henry, who had stood by Grattan to the last in the struggle against the Union," came upon the scene. Educated entirely in England, a protestant, a man of a singularly cold and unimpassioned

AN EVICTION.

nature he settled down in 1871 on his estates in Avondale. He first contested Dublin County as a Home Rule candidate, a vacancy, caused by a government appointment, having occurred. He was unsuccessful, but in the following year, 1875, he stood as candidate for Meath and was elected.

No great flourish of trumpets heralded him in the House of Commons, and it was not for some time that he began to attract attention by pertinent questions and neat little speeches. It soon became apparent that he was a man of extraordinary ability and energy, that he sought to maintain scrupulous independence of both Liberals and Conservatives. Among his faithful supporters were Mr. O'Connor Power, a man of education and real eloquence,—an acquisition to which Mr. Parnell could lay no claim,—and Mr. Biggar, a Belfast merchant, gifted with matchless assurance that neither ridicule nor disapprobation could abash.

It was not until 1877 that Mr. Parnell came into conflict with the House of Commons when, under the pretext of making a stand against the practice of bringing on business late at night, or rather early in the morning, he commenced the system of employing all the rules of the House that could assist him, such as moving the adjournment of the debate and the adjournment of the House alternately, and was so far successful as to seriously interfere with the old ministerial practice of rushing work unnoticed through the House of Commons at an unseemly hour in the morning. But the real object of Mr. Parnell was to make the Irish party so intolerable that Home Rule should be granted as the only means of escape from the weariness of interminable speeches on irrelevant subjects, on vexatious amendments, altercations and counts out. It was as though he had said :—"If *you* will not discuss the claims of Ireland *we* will see to it that you shall not discuss anything else." Members tried to howl Mr Parnell and his colleagues down, but they were not the men to be perturbed by howls. "If the House shouted and howled while they were talking," they said, "so much the worse for the House and so much the greater waste of time," and they went on talking till the House was tired, or they quietly and composedly, but with shameless effrontery, moved motions of adjournment to be tested by the long process of divisions which could not be shouted out of existence. Obstruction, be it remembered, was not in itself a new thing, the new thing was that the use made of the machinery in existence was greater than had ever been known in Parliament.

Opposition in this form was brought to bear on the Prisons Bill, the Army and Navy Mutiny Bills, and others, but the full force of the obstructive party was exercised on Lord Carnarvon's South Africa Confederation Bill. This Mr. Parnell and his followers opposed "step by step, stage by stage, point by point." At one sitting on this Bill (July 31st, 1877) Parliament was detained for twenty-six hours at a stretch, a period hitherto unparalleled, though since exceeded. Motion after motion of adjournment was made, divided upon, and defeated, the temper of the House with every division getting hotter and angrier, and the Parnellites more and more determined. Chairman after chairman was called upon to preside, and relays of members relieved those who were worn out in the struggle.

It is only fair to say that some of the Home Rulers did not approve of this policy of obstruction ; others out-Heroded Herod. Among them was Mr. Biggar, who, from the first, when Parnell was young and unknown, stood by him through thick and thin. An admirer of him says, "With imperturbable composure, with unalterable good humour, with an apparently marvellous and unwearying staying-power, Mr. Biggar proved himself the very ideal lieutenant of the leader of a small minority against overwhelming odds."

The manner in which Irish affairs were being conducted did not meet with the approval of mild Mr. Butt, who expressed himself as being unable to continue in association with "a public broil in which no man could take part with dignity to himself or advantage to his country !" In April, 1878, a dastardly agrarian outrage took place in Ireland, resulting in the murder of Lord Leitrim, his clerk, and another person ; and in a debate in Parliament on the subject, Mr. Butt felt himself constrained to "dissociate himself from all sympathy with the sentiments expressed by some of his colleagues," and resigned the leadership nominally to Mr. Shaw, but actually to Mr. Parnell.

Mr. Butt died in 1879, and in that same year Irish affairs became further complicated by a revival of the Land Question, inaugurated by Mr. Michael Davitt,

who, as a younger man, had joined the Fenian movement, and had been sentenced to fifteen years' penal servitude. He served seven years of his time, and was then liberated on ticket-of-leave.

In March, 1880, Lord Beaconsfield issued a political manifesto, in the shape of a letter to the Duke of Marlborough, in which he announced his intention of dissolving Parliament, which was nearing its legal term of seven years, and of appealing to the constituencies for their verdict on his policy. In the first topic touched upon in his letter—the last of any political importance he was destined ever to write—he frankly recognised the growth of the Home Rule movement, which he characterised as dangerous, "scarcely less dangerous than pestilence or famine." He considered that it

CAPTAIN AND MRS. BOYCOTT GATHERING IN THE HARVEST.

had been insidiously supported by the Liberals who sought to destroy "the Imperial character of England" by a policy of decomposition, and he called upon "all men of light and leading" to resist it. Immediately after this, a manifesto was issued by the Irish leaders, calling upon all who would help the national cause to assist in turning the Tories out of office. The result of the elections was that Mr. Gladstone returned to power, and the Liberals came to the new Parliament with a majority of one hundred. The Irish vote had been given practically "solid" for the Liberals. Mr. Parnell was elected for three constituencies, and took his seat as Member for Cork.

Among the eighty Home Rule members of the Irish party who were his most prominent associates were Mr. Sexton, Mr. T. P. O'Connor, Mr. T. D. Sullivan, Mr. Jas. O'Kelly, Mr. E. D. Gray, Mr. Justin McCarthy, Mr. Wm. O'Brien, and Mr. T. M. Healy, all of whom were journalists. Other leading members were Messrs. Dillon, Biggar, R. Power, John Redmond, William Redmond, Arthur O'Connor, Shiel, John Barry, William Learey, Dr. Commins, and Colonel The O'Gorman Mahon.

When Mr. Gladstone commenced his second administration, he still appeared to be under the impression that Ireland was to be appeased by remedial measures, and he brought forward a bill to prevent landlords from evicting tenants for non-payment of rent, when the tenants were too poor to pay, without giving them compensation for disturbance. The Bill passed the House of Commons but was rejected by the Lords, and the Ministry practically acquiesced in the rejection by merely promising to bring in another Bill next year. But the case was one of grave emergency; in 1877, 463 families had been evicted, in 1880 2,110 families were evicted, and Mr. Gladstone had himself declared that in the distressed districts of Ireland eviction was "very near to a sentence of death."* The Irish National Land League which had been formed in 1879, and was in reality "a gigantic trades' union to promote a strike against rack rents," as well as to further the cause of Home Rule, was now, under the direction of Mr. Michael Davitt, making its influence felt all over rural Ireland. The Land League advised the people not to pay any rent and to resist eviction, passively, if possible. Suddenly, therefore, agrarian crime burst like a flame over Ireland, and especially in the districts of the South and West.

In August Mr. John Dillon, one of the foremost members of the League, made a fiery speech at Kildare, in which he said that he looked forward to the time when there would be 300,000 men enrolled in the ranks of the Land League, and when that time came, if the landlords still refused justice, then word would be given for a general strike all over the country against rents, and then "all the armies in England could not levy rent in that country." Sir Walter Bartlelot called the attention of Mr. Forster, Chief Secretary for Ireland, to this speech, which Mr. Forster characterised as "wicked and cowardly." Mr. Dillon came across from Ireland to reply, and on the 23rd of August, moved the adjournment of the House for that purpose. Long and bitter debates followed; the work of obstruction was renewed in a more acrimonious spirit than before, and, as an Irishman observed, "all night sittings became the order of the day!" until Parliament was prorogued in September.

In the meantime affairs in Ireland were growing from bad to worse; evictions increased, and indescribable misery followed. Then came a crisis. A class of people with whom the Land League had to contend was the land-grabbers, *i.e.*, men who offered to take farms from which the tenants had been unjustly evicted. In a speech at Ennis on the way in which landlords were to be driven from Ireland, Mr. Parnell asked "What is to be done with a tenant bidding for a farm from which another tenant has been evicted?" Some one in the crowd shouted out "Shoot him!" "No," answered Parnell, "I do not say shoot him; there is a more Christian and charitable way of dealing with him. Let him be shunned in the street, in the shop, in the market place—even in the places of worship—as if he were a leper of old!"

The first to fall under this terrible ban was Captain Boycott, an Englishman, an agent of Lord Earne, and a farmer at Lough Mask, who in his capacity as agent had served notices of eviction on Lord Earne's tenants. Suddenly, mysteriously, he found himself shunned; his servants fled, no one would speak to him, work for him, or supply him with food—he was as if he were a leper of old. He claimed the protection of the police, and he and his wife worked in their own fields with the shadows of the armed constabulary ever at their heels. At length some Orangemen of the North, hearing of their sufferings, sent a gang of armed men—to become known as "emergency men"—to

*Hansard, Vol. CCLIII., 1663.

help them, while, to avoid civil war, the authorities sent a force of soldiers and police, and thus under guard of this small army, Captain Boycott gathered in his harvest, and gave a new word to the English language.

Boycotting under the auspices of the Land League became general, and the body of emergency men grew larger and larger. The state of affairs was disastrous; there were agrarian murders and outrages, there was famine in the land, and everything was in a state of disturbance. The Land League posed as being on the side of law and order, and claimed that they did much to prevent violence and outrage, but the Government took a different view of the matter and commenced a State prosecution

MOONLIGHTERS.

against the officials of the League, Mr. Parnell, Mr. Dillon, Mr. Sexton, Mr. Biggar, and about a dozen others, on a charge of conspiring to incite tenants not to pay rent or take farms from which the occupiers had been evicted. The trial lasted for twenty days and then broke down, owing to the disagreement of the jury as to a verdict.

On the 6th of January, 1881, when Parliament re-assembled, the Queen's speech announced that the increase of agrarian crimes and the insecurity of life and property in Ireland demanded the introduction of coercive measures, and on the 24th Mr. Forster introduced his famous Coercion Bill, giving the Lord Lieutenant of Ireland summary powers "to arrest any person reasonably suspected of treasonable practices, and of the commission,

before or after the Act, of crimes of intimidation or incitement thereto." This Bill was opposed by the Irish Nationalists tooth and nail; disorderly obstruction of every kind was employed, night after night stormy scenes occurred in the House, each one surpassing its predecessor in bitterness and unpleasantness. Of all the wild scenes in the House perhaps none was wilder than when, on a certain day, Mr. Parnell rose and asked whether it was true that Mr. Michael Davitt had been arrested. When the Home Secretary, Sir William Harcourt, answered "Yes, sir," there arose such a cheering and uproar as had probably never been heard in that place before. That same night Mr. Parnell, Mr. Dillon, and Mr. Finigan were expelled, and eventually the Speaker called the attention of the House "to the conduct of the Irish members," and named 28 of them at once. Mr. Gladstone moved for their suspension, and the motion was carried by 410 votes to 6.

Despite the resistance—step by step, in every stage—to the Coercion Bill, it was carried and passed into law, and Mr. John Dillon, for violent speeches in Ireland against the Government, was the first to be arrested and put into prison under the authority of that Act. He was not, however, the only one to suffer from the vigorous action of the Government. On October 13th a descent was made upon all the other prominent Land Leaguers in Dublin. Messrs. Parnell, Sexton, O'Brien, O'Kelly and others were arrested and sent to Kilmainham, while warrants were out against Messrs. Biggar and Arthur O'Connor, who, however, escaped to England, where they were free from arrest, as the Coercion Act applied only to Ireland.*

The attempt to suppress the Land League by imprisoning its leaders and declaring it an "illegal association" was not successful. Crime increased, secret societies came rapidly into existence, midnight maraudings, farm burning, mutilation of cattle, increased, and the "Moonlighters," under the leadership of a mysterious individual known as "Captain Moonlight," committed horrible atrocities. From his confinement in Kilmainham Gaol Parnell sanctioned the "No Rent Manifesto" of the League—an appeal to the whole tenantry of Ireland to refuse to pay one poor scruple to their landlords until the Government should reverse its policy; while the National section of the Dublin Corporation conferred the freedom of the city upon their heroes, Parnell and Dillon.

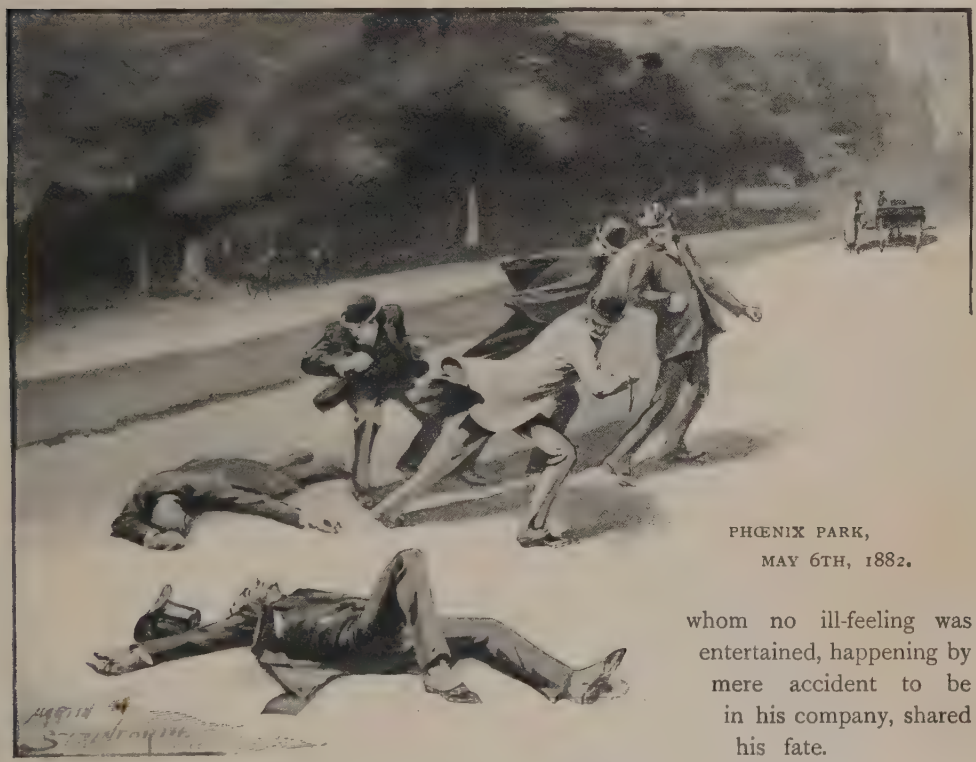
At length, worn out in his struggle with the Irish and at his wit's end how to deal with them, Mr. Gladstone took a step that filled the world with wonder. On condition that Parnell and the other prisoners would aid him in restoring order in Ireland, and would withdraw the No-rent Manifesto, he offered them an otherwise unconditional release. This was accepted, and the prisoners were set free; Earl Cowper, the Lord Lieutenant, and Mr. Forster, the Chief Secretary, at once resigned in disgust, declining to "make bargains with sedition." Lord Spencer was then appointed Viceroy, and Lord Frederick Cavendish,—second son of the Duke of Devonshire and brother of Lord Hartington,—Chief Secretary.

On the 6th of May, only two days after his appointment, Lord Frederick Cavendish arrived in Dublin to be present at the entry of the new Viceroy. After the ceremony he walked with Mr. Burke, the permanent Under Secretary, through Phœnix Park. "It was a bright summer evening, between seven and eight o'clock, scarcely less light than at noonday. There were many people in the park, and Lord Frederick Cavendish and Mr. Burke were walking along the principal road—a wide highway for walking and driving—with

* Mr. Gladstone received a telegram, announcing the arrest of Parnell, when he was at the Guildhall on the 13th October. "Our enemies have fallen, have fallen!" he cried, and a frenzy of enthusiasm ensued.

flat grassy stretches at each side and trees here and there. It seems almost incredible that in such a place—a park full of people, and at such a time, the clear bright evening of a summer day—two men could have been suddenly set upon by armed assassins, and literally been cut to pieces without anyone noticing what was going on, and without any opposition being offered to the escape of the murderers; yet that is precisely what did happen."*

Four members of a secret society of desperadoes called the "Invincibles," who had abandoned boycotting for assassination, had determined to "do away" with Mr. Burke—a man of high character, but one of the government officials whose duty compelled him to carry out the provisions of the Coercion Acts—and Lord Frederick Cavendish, against



PHŒNIX PARK,
MAY 6TH, 1882.

whom no ill-feeling was entertained, happening by mere accident to be in his company, shared his fate.

The terrible deed produced a feeling of universal horror and indignation. The leaders of the National Party, Parnell, Dillon, and Davitt, issued a manifesto in which they said: "We feel that no act has ever been perpetrated in our country during the exciting struggles for social and political rights of the last fifty years that has so stained the name of hospitable Ireland as this cowardly and unprovoked assassination of a friendly stranger, and that until the murderers of Lord Frederick Cavendish and Mr. Burke are brought to justice that stain will sully our country's name."

Mr. G. O. (afterwards Sir George) Trevelyan was appointed to the vacant Chief Secretaryship of Ireland; a strong "Crimes Act" was passed, and was vigorously administered by Lord Spencer, and for a time it seemed as if peace would be restored.†

* "Ireland Since the Union."

† In August the statue of O'Connell was unveiled, and an Exhibition of Irish Arts and Manufactures opened, and on the following day the freedom of the city was conferred on Mr Parnell and also on Mr. Dillon, who six months later resigned his seat in Parliament.

But a series of events of the most startling and impressive description was soon to be revealed, and meanwhile murders, agitations, and seditious speeches continued.

On the 13th of January, 1883, a police raid on some houses in Dublin resulted in the arrest of seventeen men, among whom was James Carey, a builder and contractor, who had recently been elected a member of the Dublin Town Council. All the prisoners were charged with conspiracy "to murder certain government officials and other persons," and it was believed that at last the Government was on the track of the assassins of Lord Frederick Cavendish and Mr. Burke, and of other mysterious murders. "There is at length," said the *Times*, "a probability of securing the clue to a series of atrocious crimes, perpetrated with a cold-blooded deliberation and remorseless purpose not easily paralleled save among the fanatics of Nihilism."

When the prisoners were brought to trial, two of their number, Robert Farrell and a cab-driver named Kavanagh, under the pressure of examination, turned informers and disclosed the existence of an organization composed of men specially selected for the assassination of Irish government officials and others, who were known as the "Invincibles." This gang of villains had dogged the footsteps of Mr. Forster, but had failed to get a chance of killing him; they had planned and carried out the assassination of Lord Frederick Cavendish and Mr. Burke, although it was clearly shown that the death of the former was entirely a mischance, Mr. Burke only having been marked out for "removal."

The great "sensation" of the trial was when Carey, in order to save his neck, himself turned informer and the whole of the facts came clearly to light. It transpired that Carey had joined the Fenians so early as 1861, and had remained a permanent member until 1878. Three years later the "Invincibles" were organised, outside the Fenian body but composed of men drawn from its ranks, and the oath which Carey and others who joined the conspiracy took, pledged them to obey all orders under penalty of death. At the head of the band was a mysterious person whose very name Carey never knew, but who was always called "Number One." From him the chief orders came; he supplied the necessary funds; and it was he who gave the order for the assassination of Mr. Burke. It came out, on his own showing, that Carey chose the knives used in the perpetration of the crime; that he gave the signal for the double murder by raising a white handkerchief;* and that he had plotted and planned other dastardly murders. The result of the trial was that five of the conspirators were hanged, three were sent to penal servitude for life, and others to penal servitude for various terms. Carey was detained for some time in Kilmainham prison, and then was allowed to seek a refuge in a British Colony. One day in July the startling news came from the Cape of Good Hope that he had been shot dead on his arrival at the Cape by a man named O'Donnell, who had travelled out with him in the same ship from England for the sole purpose of killing him. O'Donnell was brought to England, tried, found guilty, and was executed early in December.

* "Lord Frederick Cavendish and Mr. Burke had got to within a few yards of the Phœnix Monument; they were within sight of the Viceregal Lodge which lay at their right a few hundred yards away. Some boys on bicycles who passed them were the last to see them alive. The bicyclists rode round the Phœnix Monument, passed a car with some four men in it driving rapidly away, and came back to find Lord Frederick Cavendish and Mr. Burke lying on the ground dead and covered with wounds. When the alarm was given the bodies were soon recognised, but all trace of the assassins had disappeared, and such efforts as were made in the excitement of the hour to track them were futile. It soon transpired that several persons were witnesses of the ghastly murder, who had no idea what they were witnessing. One man who was walking with his dogs at some little distance off saw what he believed to be a group of roughs struggling together in the road; he saw a couple of men fall and some others drive away, without any feeling of surprise, nor had he, until he arrived at the spot where the dead bodies were lying, the slightest idea that he had been looking at one of the most horrible tragedies on record. It was even more painful to know that from the windows of the Viceregal Lodge, Lord Spencer himself was looking out of one of the windows and saw with unconcerned eyes the scuffle on the road some hundred yards away, little thinking that what seemed to be the horse play of half-a-dozen roughs was, in reality, the murder of his two colleagues."—*Annual Register.*

There have been dramatic representations of episodes in the French Revolution almost without number; in the Twentieth Century, or may be in the Twenty-first, there will probably be as many, and some even more tragic, of the state of Ireland in the last quarter of the Nineteenth Century.*

When Parliament met (on the 15th of February, 1883) the Irish Question was raised as an amendment to the address, and Mr. Parnell was fiercely attacked from all quarters. He was reminded that Sheridan, against whom a true bill of murder had been found as the result of Carey's evidence, "was the same individual whose aid in suppressing outrage he had promised to the Government." Mr. Forster was fierce in his accusations of Parnell, and used words that gave to his hearers the impression that he charged him with conniving at murder, whereupon Mr. O'Kelly sprang up and cried out three times in an excited manner, "You lie!" and was immediately suspended. Mr. Parnell did not reply until the next day, when, in a quiet and composed manner, he coldly repudiated Mr. Forster's insinuations by saying "that he could hold no commerce with Mr. Forster, whom he regarded as an informer in relation to the secrets of his late colleagues; nay, as an informer who had not even the pretext of Carey, namely, the miserable one of saving his own life."

While in England Mr. Parnell was denounced right and left, in Ireland a movement was set on foot to present him with a national testimonial, and subscriptions flowed in until they ultimately reached the sum of £40,000.

In 1883 came the great dynamite scare. At public meetings threats had been uttered by Irish-Americans, and seditious articles had been written, advocating the use of dynamite for the purpose of blowing up the public buildings of London. On the 15th of March an attempt was made to blow up the Local Government Board offices at Whitehall, and about the same time an infernal machine was placed in position to blow up the *Times* office, in Printing House Square in the city, but, through the fortunate accident that the machine overturned, it failed to explode. All London was in a ferment of excitement. Guards of soldiers and police were stationed at all the government offices and important public buildings, as well as at the residences of leading statesmen, and for some time London wore the appearance of a besieged city. In April the police made the important discovery of a conspiracy, arrested eight men, and seized a large quantity of nitro-glycerine, which had been manufactured in Birmingham, and was being secretly conveyed to London.

On the 9th of April, Sir William Harcourt introduced a Bill for amending the law relating to explosives, aimed against the persons whom he termed "the pirates of the human race." It was passed in a kind of panic through all its stages in less than two hours, was sent forthwith to the House of Lords, and on the next day received the Royal assent.†

After the Explosives Act had come into force (1883-1885) seizures of dynamite were made at Leicester and Cupar Fife; arrests were made at Liverpool and Glasgow,

* It should be mentioned here that at the trial of the "Invincibles," true bills were also found against three individuals, Walsh, Sheridan and Tynan. The last was supposed to be the mysterious individual who had supplied the "Invincibles" with money, and who was only known to Carey as "Number One." Among many episodes of the tragedy, it may be told that at a meeting of the Home Manufacturers' Association, it was Carey, the great villain of the piece, who proposed a vote of condolence to Lady Frederick Cavendish.

† Among its provisions were, that to cause an explosion, not leading to loss of life, was punishable by penal servitude for life; attempting to cause an explosion was punishable by 20 years' imprisonment; while to be found in possession of dynamite, failing proof that it was held for a lawful purpose, was punishable by 14 years' imprisonment.

and the full penalty of the new law was meted out. Then came another series of dastardly outrages; two explosions took place on the Metropolitan Railway; another in the luggage room at Victoria Station; at Charing Cross, Ludgate Hill, and Paddington railway stations portmanteaus were found containing in each case dynamite connected with a pistol and a clock, timed to go off at a certain hour; an attempt was made to destroy Blackfriars Bridge, and two explosions occurred in Westminster, one in the Great Hall another in the Chamber of the House.

On June 8th, 1885, the Government was defeated by a majority of twelve, not, however, upon any question relating to Ireland, but upon Mr. Childer's budget scheme.* A few days later, Mr. Gladstone having in the meantime made "a dutiful communication" to the Queen, Lord Salisbury accepted office. In November a general election took place, and the returns were Liberals, 333; Tories, 257; and Irish Home Rulers, 86. The Parnellites thus held the balance between the parties, and in January, voting on Mr. Gladstone's side, they caused a change of Ministry, Mr. Gladstone becoming premier for the third time.

When he formed his Ministry it was understood that he had in hand "a liberal measure of local self-government for Ireland," to which he had referred in his Midlothian speeches. It was soon seen by the formation of his Ministry that many of his old colleagues had forsaken him, and that a split in the Liberal party had taken place. Among those who refused to join him on the ground of their objection to a separate Parliament for Ireland, and who eventually formed the section known as the "Liberal Unionists," or "Dissentient Liberals," were Lord Hartington, Mr. Bright, Mr. Goschen, Mr. Chamberlain, Mr. Forster, Sir Henry James, the Duke of Argyll, Lord Northbrook, Lord Selborne, and many others. Mr. Gladstone's chief adherents were Sir William Harcourt, Mr. John Morley (Chief Secretary for Ireland), Lord Spencer, Lord Granville, Lord Rosebery (Foreign Secretary), and Lord Aberdeen (Viceroy of Ireland). Mr. Chamberlain joined the Ministry, but seceded later.

The 8th of April was a remarkable day in parliamentary history. During the previous month it had become generally known that Mr. Gladstone was now in fuller sympathy with the Irish leaders, and that he had a Home Rule Bill of his own in preparation, but nobody knew the exact form the proposed measure would take, and expectancy rose higher and higher until on the 8th of April, in a House full to overflowing, he unfolded his scheme in a masterly speech, listened to in almost breathless silence though occupying nearly four hours in delivery. It was proposed to set up in Dublin an Irish Parliament capable of dealing with all matters "save the Crown, the Army and Navy, Foreign and Colonial Policy, Trade, Navigation, Currency, Imperial Taxation, and the Endowment of Churches." The Parliament, to sit in Dublin, was to consist of 309 members, sitting in a single chamber, but to be of two orders voting apart, the first to comprise representative peers and members elected under a £25 property qualification and not liable to lose their seats at a dissolution; the second to comprise 206 members representing the counties and boroughs, to be chosen by household suffrage. Ireland was to contribute to the Imperial Exchequer the sum of £3,243,000 per annum.

*Mr. W. H. Lucy, in his "Diary of Two Parliaments," records that when it was known that the Government was defeated the pent up excitement of the House found vent in a terrific uproar. "Lord Randolph Churchill leapt on to the bench, and waving his hat madly above his head, uproariously cheered. Mr. Healy followed his example, and presently all the Irish Members and nearly all the Conservatives below the gangway were standing on the benches waving hats and pocket handkerchiefs, and raising deafening cheers. This was renewed when the figures were read out by Mr. Winn, and again when they were proclaimed from the chair. From the Irish camp rose cries of "Buckshot! Buckshot!!" and "Coercion!" [In allusion to Mr. Forster's merciful provision that buckshot should be served out to the Irish police instead of ball in the cartridges.] "These had no relevancy to the budget scheme, but they showed that the Irish members had not forgotten Mr. Forster, and that this was their hour of victory rather than the triumph of the Tories."

During the debates that followed "the passions, the enthusiasm, the fear, and hope, and fury, and exultation, which swept the surface and stirred the depths of the greatest legislative assemblage of modern times" were very notable. On the 13th of April Mr. Gladstone introduced as part of his scheme a Land Purchase Bill, which offered to Irish landlords the option of being bought out of their estates. The whole measure was regarded by many as one which would virtually repeal the Union; Mr. Parnell accepted it in

LORD RANDOLPH CHURCHILL IS DELIGHTED.

Mr. W. H. Smith

Lord R. Churchill

Sir M. Hicks-Beach

principle, as an adequate concession to the Nationalists, though regarding it as a hard bargain from a financial point of view; the Orangemen of Ulster declared that they would plunge into civil war rather than submit to a Home Rule government; in short, the measure gave no full satisfaction to anyone. On the second reading 93 Liberals voted against the Government, and the measure was thrown out by a majority of 30 in a House where 652 members voted—341 to 311.

An appeal to the country was made in July, 1886, and the contest was the most bitter that had taken place for many years. There was crimination and recrimination on all hands, a breaking up of old alliances and friendships; charges and counter-charges of a passionate nature were bandied about; desertions from old standpoints ensued; dreams of a pacified, contented and happy Ireland faded away; and a great dread of civil war, and government by assassins and traitors, took its place. Every evil passion seemed to be let loose, and it was as by a miracle that the elections passed off without serious disturbance. The result was fatal to Mr. Gladstone's Ministry: Conservatives 315, Gladstonian Liberals 196, Home Rulers (Irish Nationalists, or Parnellites) 86, Dissentient Liberals 73.

Mr. Gladstone at once resigned office, and Lord Salisbury became Premier for the second time, with Lord Randolph Churchill as Chancellor of the Exchequer and Leader of the House of Commons.* Lord Hartington, as leader of the Liberal Unionists, declined to form part of a Coalition Cabinet, at the same time he gave his assurance that he would "never join in any combination with the Gladstonians so as to imperil the position of the incoming Ministry."

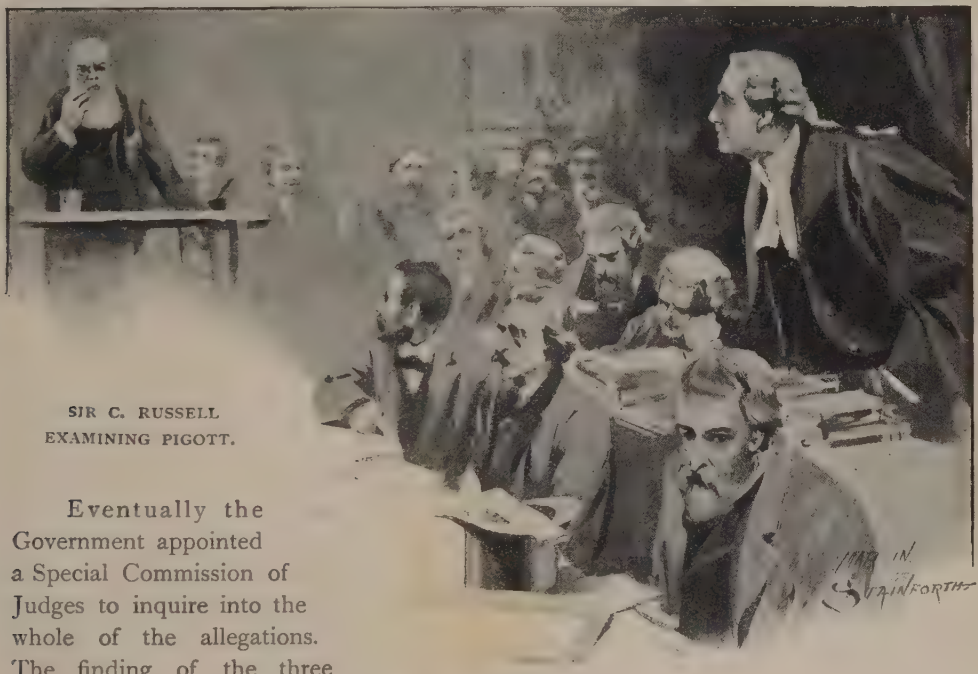
Although the Home Rule question was laid to rest for a considerable time, Irish affairs did not cease to trouble Parliament and the country. In the session of 1886 Mr. Parnell brought in a Bill for the Relief of Irish Tenants, which proposed that tenants who deposited half their rent in Court should be secured against evictions from their homes, the remainder of their rent to be subject to decision in the law courts. The Bill was rejected by the combined vote of the Tories and Liberal Unionists, and this rejection led to what was known as the "Plan of Campaign," a revival of the "No Rent" plan of 1882, Mr. Dillon urging the Irish tenants to pay no more rent than they could afford. The effect of this in Ireland was disastrous, and Mr. A. J. Balfour on becoming Secretary for Ireland, pledged himself to carry out an unflinching policy of coercion. On the 23rd of March, 1887, he introduced his stringent Coercion Bill, which, unlike previous measures of the kind, was to be permanent. He succeeded in carrying the Bill despite the persistent obstruction of the Parnellites and a certain number of Gladstonians, and not only so, but it led to the passing of new and sorely needed reforms of procedure in the House of Commons, which made the shameless methods for wasting the time of the House less easy. The Coercion Bill received the Royal assent on the 19th of July, and exactly a month later the Lord Lieutenant of Ireland "proclaimed" the National League as a dangerous association, thus enabling Mr. Balfour, under the Crimes Act, to suppress any branch of it he might think proper.

At first it seemed very doubtful how the Act would work. Many Irish members of the National League were imprisoned during 1887 and 1888 for speeches of extraordinary violence and for acts done in contravention of the new law. In September, 1887, the "Massacre at Mitchelstown" took place—a fatal affray between the police and

* Lord Randolph Churchill left the Ministry at Christmas, and Mr. Goschen became Chancellor of the Exchequer. Mr. A. J. Balfour became Chief Secretary for Ireland early in 1887.

the people, owing to the interruption by the constabulary of a meeting called to protest against the action of the Government in proscribing Mr. W. O'Brien, M.P., one of the chief supporters of Mr. Parnell.

Affairs in Ireland seemed to be quieting down when the *Times* newspaper published a series of articles entitled "Parnellism and Crime," charging Mr. Parnell and his colleagues with active complicity in outrage and terrorism in Ireland. The facsimile of a letter, purporting to have been written by Mr. Parnell, was published on the 18th of April and contained these apparently incriminating words with reference to the Phœnix Park murders: "Though I regret the accident of Lord Frederick Cavendish's death, I cannot refuse to admit that Burke got no more than his deserts." Mr. Parnell at once repudiated this letter, declaring it to be a forgery, and in August commenced an action for libel against the *Times*, laying damages at £100,000.



SIR C. RUSSELL EXAMINING PIGOTT.

Dillon. Sir G. Lewis. Parnell.

Eventually the Government appointed a Special Commission of Judges to inquire into the whole of the allegations. The finding of the three judges who tried the case was, that the letter purporting to have been written by Parnell was a forgery committed by an atrocious wretch named Richard Pigott, and was sold by him to the *Times*.* With regard to the other charges, they found "that the respondents did nothing to prevent crime, and expressed no *bonâ fide* disapproval of it; that they disseminated newspapers tending to incite to sedition and the commission of crime; that they entered into a conspiracy to promote, by a system of coercion and intimidation, an agrarian agitation for the purpose of impoverishing and expelling from the country the Irish landlords; that they made payments to procure the escape of criminals from justice and to compensate persons injured in the commission of crime; and that they invited and obtained assistance and subscriptions from known advocates of crime and dynamite."

* Pigott confessed to the forgery and fled to Spain, where, to escape arrest, he committed suicide.

This judgment was not delivered until February the 13th, 1890, and when Mr. Parnell returned to the House of Commons he was received with acclamation and a discreditable ovation by his colleagues! Scarcely, however, had the plaudits died away when he appeared in a new light in the Divorce Court, the suit being brought against him by his old personal friend and political assistant, Captain O'Shea. It was a disgraceful case; Parnell had no defence to offer, and judgment went against him. Public opinion revolted and went dead against the man and his flagrant immoralities; the Nonconformist conscience in particular was bitterly aggrieved, and Charles Stewart Parnell who for sixteen years had led the Irish Party at his will, and who "had brought the vision of Home Rule to the very brink of accomplishment" fell, never to rise again in the estimation of decent men.

Mr. Gladstone issued a manifesto in which he said that Mr. Parnell's "continuance in the leadership of the Irish Party would be productive of consequences disastrous in the highest degree to the cause of Ireland;" the ecclesiastical authorities in Ireland denounced him; at a stormy meeting in "Committee Room No. 15" of the House of Commons, forty-five of his own party withdrew from his leadership, and Mr. Parnell was deposed.

He tried to form a new party; Parnellite and Anti-Parnellite candidates contested every Irish election and Parnell himself used every effort to turn the verdict of the overwhelming majority. It was in vain. With failing health and strength he exerted himself beyond measure, and at an open air meeting he caught a chill, inflammation of the lungs ensued, and he died on the 6th of October, 1891. "How are the mighty fallen!"

Lord Salisbury's administration came to an end nine months after Parnell's death, and the general election of July, 1892, returned 269 Conservatives and 46 Liberal Unionists, as against 274 Gladstonians and 81 Irish Home Rulers. The Parnellites were "nowhere" and retained only nine seats.

Mr. Gladstone stood pledged to introduce a second Home Rule Bill, and on February 13th, 1893, he brought forward the measure. The enthusiasm that greeted the introduction of the first Home Rule Bill was not renewed; the great statesman and brilliant orator was eighty-three years old, and although he resisted the encroachments of age manfully, he was beginning to feel its infirmities both in sight and hearing and in physical force. He was, however, still full of buoyant hope that he should carry the measure on which his heart was fixed, and crown the great labours of his long life with success. But it was not to be. For weary months—from February to September—the Bill was discussed; every device to get it through was tried, and especially the closure, or, as it was commonly called, "the gag." At length the third reading was passed by 301 to 267. When, however, it reached the House of Lords, it was unceremoniously thrown out by the unprecedented majority of nearly ten to one—419 to 41, among the majority being sixty-two peers whom the Queen had created on Mr. Gladstone's own recommendation.

There was a great outcry among the people at the action of the Lords, and Hyde Park and Trafalgar Square echoed and re-echoed with denunciations, which had no permanent effect. Early in 1894, Mr. Gladstone announced his intention to retire from active politics, and bring to a close his sixty-two years' service in the House of Commons.

Lord Rosebery was his successor as premier, but he left the question of Irish Home Rule severely alone. His ministry only lasted for sixteen months, and when Lord Salisbury took the reins of Government, "with the largest majority at his back that has ever been enjoyed by an English premier during the past two generations," Home Rule became practically a dead letter

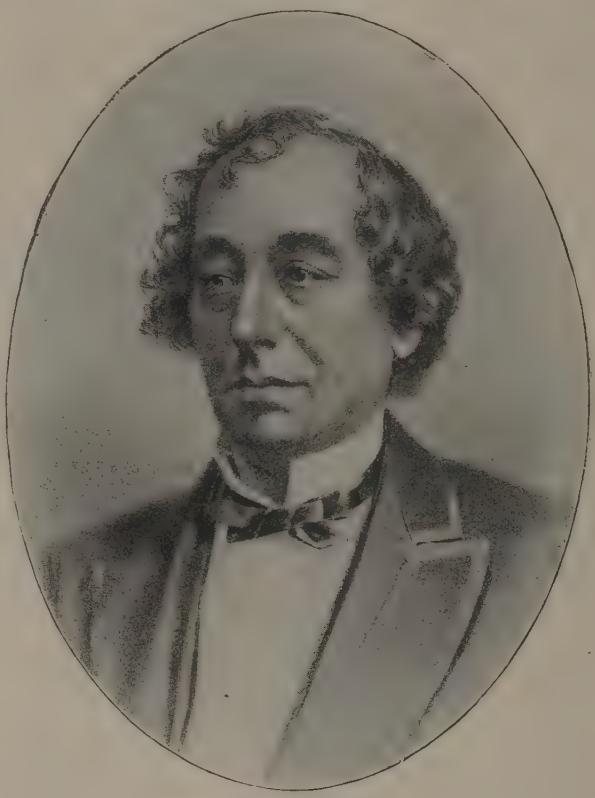
Russell & Sons. *Photo.*

THE MARQUIS OF SALISBURY.

CHAPTER XLVI.

A SPIRITED FOREIGN POLICY.

ON the 17th of February, 1876, Mr. Disraeli obtained leave to bring in a Bill enabling Her Majesty to make an addition to her style and titles, but without stating the exact form of the addition proposed. Mr. Lowe, assuming that the contemplated title would be that of "Empress," objected emphatically to the proposal on the ground that it was popularly supposed to be a title "obtained and retained by conquest," and would be injudicious to use in India, and might create a feeling of jealousy in our Australian, Canadian, and other great dependencies. On the 9th of March Mr. Disraeli, in moving the second reading of the Royal Titles Bill, announced that the title Her Majesty would assume, if the Bill were passed, would be that of "Empress," and that the style of the new title would run thus:—"Victoria, by the Grace of God, of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, Queen, Defender of the Faith, and Empress of India," and he urged the House to pass the Bill without division, Mr. Gladstone assisting him by saying that an adverse vote would be fraught with serious consequences. The motion for the second reading was agreed to without a division. In the House of Lords, when the Duke of Richmond moved the second reading of the Bill, the Duke of Somerset considered that the proposed new title had too much of an autocratic flavour to be acceptable to the English people, and Lord Grey expressed the fear that it would overshadow by degrees and cast into oblivion the old historical title of Queen, or King, of England. On the 3rd of April, in the presence of an audience unusually brilliant and crowded, the Earl of Shaftesbury moved an amendment to the Bill to the effect that an address should be presented to the Queen praying that Her Majesty might be pleased to assume "a title more in accordance than the title of 'Empress' with the history of the nation and with the loyalty and feelings of Her



B. DISRAELI.

Majesty's most faithful subjects." Throughout his speech he made use of the word "Emperor," his argument being that while it was borne by an illustrious lady it would bear an impression of feminine softness; so soon as it should be changed to the masculine gender it would have an air "military, despotic, offensive, and intolerable, alike in the East and West of the dominions of England." He stated that he was not fearful of the result in happy and prosperous times, but he foresaw evil consequences in days of distress, low wages, high prices, and general discontent. "When the traditions and almost the compacts of a thousand years have been broken," he said, "it would not be surprising if these people should turn round and say, 'You have turned your King into an Emperor, we will turn him into a President.'"

MONTENEGRINS IN AMBUSCADE;
AWAITING TURKISH TROOPS IN THE MOUNTAINS.

In the Commons, on the same day, Mr. Disraeli gave the assurance that the Imperial title would only be used in the transaction of affairs connected with the Indian Empire and in communications with foreign governments; in other words, it would be used externally, and not in relation to the internal affairs of the country. He had previously stated that "under no circumstances would the Queen assume the title of Empress in England, or confer the title 'Imperial' on her children."

On the 7th of April the Bill passed the Lords, and on the 1st of May proclamation was made of the Queen's new title of *Indiæ Imperatrix*, or Empress of India.

In the same year that saw the creation of the new title for the Queen Mr. Disraeli passed into the House of Lords as Earl of Beaconsfield. About that time the Eastern question was entering upon a new phase, when some of the provinces of Turkey rose in revolt against the tyranny under which they had long groaned, and Lord Beaconsfield had the opportunity he had coveted of displaying a spirited foreign policy which should awe Russia and prevent her encroachments, and should restore to Great Britain what was supposed to be her "impaired influence in the Councils of Europe."

The "unspeakable Turk," as Carlyle phrased him, was no choice of England nor any creation of English politics. He was not maintained for any love of himself or of his powerful position. His corruption and weakness were as embarrassing to England as they were injurious to the nations of his empire. But *he was there*, and had been there for four centuries with a long prescriptive right which he was not likely to yield or to have wrested from his hands till after a frantic struggle which would have involved all Europe, and might have enthroned the Czar upon the Bosphorus. To prevent such a catastrophe, and to avert the horrors that would have preceded it, was the real "Eastern Question."

In the summer of 1875 Herzegovina rose against the tyranny of Turkey and broke out into open revolt. This soon spread to Bosnia, where conflicts of a serious nature arose between Christians and Mahommedans, while in July, 1876, Servia and Montenegro openly joined the insurrection which they had hitherto supported privately. Thousands of the Christian population fled from a devastated land and a merciless enemy and took refuge beyond the Austrian frontier; the Servian troops were reinforced by many thousands of Russian volunteers; nevertheless the insurrection in Servia was quelled by the Turks, though the fighting continued in the other provinces. It soon became evident that Russia was the ruling spirit in all the trouble, and a succession of startling events occurring at the time, all Western Europe felt certain that war on a large scale was imminent in the East. At Salonica, in May, 1876, the French and German Consuls were murdered by fanatical Mahommedans; at Constantinople, in the same month, a revolutionary demonstration took place and the Sultan Abdul-Aziz* was dethroned, and his successor, who was almost an imbecile, was proclaimed as Murad V.

These events paled into insignificance before the intelligence of certain horrible atrocities committed by Bashi-Bazouks and other irregular Turkish troops in crushing an insurrection in Bulgaria. At first the reports were vague, and Mr. Disraeli, in Parliament and elsewhere, made light of them and treated them as "mere coffee-house babble." But Mr. W. Baring, Secretary of Legation, was sent from Constantinople to inquire into the alleged outrages as reported in detail by the special correspondent of the *Daily News* (Mr. MacGahan).

Pending the arrival of Mr. Baring's report, Mr. Disraeli on the 11th of August (1876) made his last speech in the House of Commons. All his policy, he declared, had been directed not to the support of the Turks, for whom we were not responsible, but to uphold and protect the British Empire. He concluded his speech in these words:—"What may be the fate of the Eastern part of Europe it would be arrogant for me to speculate upon . . . But I am sure that as long as England is ruled by English parties who understand the principles on which our Empire is founded, and who are resolved to maintain that Empire, our influence in that part of the world can never be looked upon with indifference. . . . What our duty is at this critical moment is to maintain the Empire of England. Nor will we ever agree to any step, though it may obtain for a moment comparative quiet and a false prosperity, that hazards the existence of that Empire." With this characteristic utterance, taking the high ground of Imperial policy, declaring the indissoluble connection of England with the East, and exhibiting his ill-concealed distrust of Russia, he ceased to be the leader of the House of Commons and passed into what was supposed to be the quieter life of the House of Lords.

* This was the Sultan who visited England in June, 1867, and was received with wonderful pomp and ceremony. He visited the Queen at Windsor, made State visits to the Opera and Crystal Palace, reviewed the fleet at Spithead, and was entertained by the Corporation of London in the Guildhall. A few days after his deposition as Sultan he was either murdered or he committed suicide. Murad V. only reigned for three months and was succeeded by his brother Hamid.

Mr. Baring's report, confirming all the terrible rumours and statements which his chief had refused to believe, was issued in September, and produced an outburst of righteous indignation to which there had been no parallel since September, 1792. He stated that he had come to the conclusion that "no fewer than 12,000 persons perished in the sandjak of Philippopolis" alone, and confirmed the most harrowing details given by the correspondent of the *Daily News*. One incident only shall be recorded here.

BASHI-BAZOUKS STORMING THE CHRISTIAN CHURCH.

At Batak about 1,000 or 1,200 people took refuge in the church and churchyard, the latter being surrounded by a wall. "The church itself is a solid building, and resisted all the attempts of the Bashi-Bazouks to burn it from the outside; they consequently fired it through the windows, and, getting upon the roof, tore off the tiles and threw burning pieces of wood and rags dipped in petroleum among the mass of unhappy human beings inside. At last the door was forced in, the massacre completed, and the inside of the church burnt. Hardly any escaped out of these fatal walls. . . . Enough, I

think, has been said to show that to Achmet Agha and his men belongs the distinction of having committed, perhaps, the most heinous crime that has stained the history of the present century, Nana Sahib alone, I should say, having rivalled their deeds." "And yet for this exploit," Mr. Baring added, "Achmet Agha had received the Order of the Medjidie!"

The horrible story of the Bulgarian atrocities roused an intense excitement in this country. There burst upon us cries of shame and anguish from the villages of far-off Bulgaria, devastated and befouled with the excesses of murder, fire, and lust, which called forth an expression of indignation hardly ever known before, the intensity of anger and abhorrence rising to "a universal fever at blood heat."

Mr. Gladstone came out from his self-imposed retirement and hurled, in pamphlet and in speech, the bitterest invectives not only against those responsible for the atrocities committed, but against the political leader to whom the government of the country had been entrusted. Those who had hitherto stood by Turkey and looked forward to her ultimate regeneration, became entirely alienated from her. The national sentiment, as expressed in the press and on the platform, was that no moral or material support ought to be given to the Ottoman Government as against the insurgent provinces; that the utmost abhorrence of the cruelties committed by the Turkish irregular troops upon the women and children and unarmed inhabitants of Bulgaria should be expressed in the proper quarters, and at public meetings resolutions were passed to record the opinion "that the notorious abuses of the Turkish rule in Europe, and the repeated failures of the Sublime Porte to fulfil its solemn obligations, render it hopeless to expect that any settlement of the Eastern Question will prove permanent which does not confer upon the inhabitants of the insurgent provinces the full rights of self-government."

Out of the strife Lord Beaconsfield made capital, and on the 9th of November, at the Lord Mayor's banquet, delivered his "great" speech which, if not idle bluster, could have been intended only as "a menace to the Czar, or as an appeal to the war-party at home." "We have nothing to gain by war," he said; "we are essentially a non-aggressive power. There are no cities and no provinces that we desire to appropriate. We have built up an empire of which we are proud, and our proudest boast is this: that that empire subsists as much upon sympathy as upon force. But if the struggle comes it should also be recollected that there is no country so prepared for war as England, because there is no country whose resources are so great. In a righteous cause—and I trust that England will never embark in war except in a righteous cause—a cause that concerns her liberty, her independence, or her empire,—England is not a country that will have to inquire whether she can enter into a second or a third campaign. In a righteous cause England will commence a fight that will not end until right is done."*

On the 24th of April (1877) Russia declared war against Turkey, and 50,000 troops at once entered Roumanian territory, Roumania subsequently joining the war as an ally of Russia. In the fourth week of June the Danube was crossed; Bulgaria was occupied and organised under a Russian government; the famous Schipka Pass was seized by General Gourko almost without fighting, and Russian troops in force occupied the northern parts of Roumelia. It seemed at first that all opposition was to be swept away

* This speech, as will be seen, was the text upon which a music hall song was afterwards based:—

"We don't want to fight, but, by Jingo, if we do,
We've got the ships, we've got the men, we've got the money too."

This wretched doggerel was sung everywhere; it supplied a party name which has become historical, and it gave a new set of words to the dictionary, as, a "Jingo," one who clamours for war; "Jingoism," the distinctive name for the advocates of a self-asserting imperial policy.

by the victorious invaders, who made the almost fatal mistake of under-valuing the strength and courage of their foes. But the Turks, reinforced and under better leaders, roused themselves; determined that they would not be annihilated, and drove General Gourko back into the Balkans. Then Osman Pasha, the ablest, the most admired and most trusted officer in the Turkish army, led his troops to Plevna, a Roumelian town some twenty miles north of the Danube, lying in a valley commanded by a series of hills on all sides on which he speedily constructed entrenchments and redoubts For five months he gallantly held his own against the ever-increasing forces brought against him and caused

BEHIND THE DEFENCES OF PLEVNA.

such terror to the Russians that the Grand Duke Nicholas, the commander-in-chief, sent a message to the Prince of Roumania, "Come to our help: cross the Danube where you like, how you like, under what conditions you like, but come quickly to our aid. The Turks are annihilating us. The Christian cause is lost." Enormous reinforcements came; enormous loss of life ensued, but Osman Pasha still held his own and three times hurled back the armies of the Czar with tremendous slaughter. At length General Todleben—he who had held Sebastopol against the English—came on the scene, and massed his troops round Plevna, cutting off all communication with the outside world.

ddington.

marck.

drassy.

consfield.

sbury.

Russell.

schakoff.

Hunger and disease at last compelled the brave Osman to make a desperate attempt to cut his way out, but he was overwhelmed by numbers and he and his garrison were captured. This event set at liberty an immense number of Russian troops to prosecute the war. Gourko forced the western Balkans, Schobeleff and Radetsky cleared the Schipka Pass upon the east, and the two armies swept down into the plains of Roumelia. The victorious Russians advanced quickly to Adrianople, and the vanquished Turks,

A CIRCASSIAN. TURKISH IRREGULAR.

conscious that their resources were exhausted, sued for terms of peace, which were arranged on January the 31st and concluded at San Stefano on the 3rd of March.

The Turks had, prior to this, called for the mediation of Europe, but Russia declined to allow it and dealt with the belligerents direct. Lord Beaconsfield had determined, however, not to let Russia settle the Eastern Question alone, and, as the Russians were then on the high road to Constantinople, insisted that the treaty of San Stefano must be approved by a conference of all the Powers. As the Czar paid no attention to this demand the English fleet was ordered to proceed up the Dardanelles, the

reserves were called out, Parliament voted £6,000,000 for war purposes, and the "jingoes" howled their war ditty by night and by day.

Russia was not anxious to engage in a fresh war and after much negociation consented to a reconsideration of the terms of the treaty of San Stefano. It was agreed that a congress of representatives of the European Powers should meet therefore at Berlin in June, under the presidency of Prince Bismarck, with Lord Beaconsfield and Lord Salisbury to represent England.

The result of the conference was the famous Treaty of Berlin signed on the 13th of July, by which Bulgaria was to be divided: the half north of the Balkans to be an independent province with a prince and army of its own, while in the southern half the Bulgarians of Roumelia were to be governed by a Hospodar* nominated by the Sultan and the Powers; Bosnia and Herzegovina were handed over to Austria in the interests of the peace of Europe; the territory of Servia and Montenegro was extended and these states were made independent; Roumania was deprived of a portion of Bessarabia, receiving the Dobrudscha in exchange. Batoum, Kars, and Ardahan were ceded to Russia—consequent upon the Russian invasion of Turkey in Asia—the Emperor promising to make Batoum a free commercial port. Greece, which had sided with Russia, received an addition to her frontier, and, by a secret engagement entered into before the meeting of congress, England was to receive the island of Cyprus on condition that she would pledge herself to defend the Asiatic possessions of Turkey against all invasion, the Sultan guaranteeing to carry out the reforms required by his ally.

Lord Beaconsfield returned from Berlin and was received with immense enthusiasm and every sign of approval for his "masterly policy." He drove from the Charing Cross Railway Station amid deafening cheers, and on arrival at the Foreign Office he addressed the crowd from one of the windows, declaring that he had brought back "peace with honour!"

* A title of dignity formerly borne by the vassal princes of Moldavia and Wallachia.

CHAPTER XLVII.

THE SECOND AFGHAN WAR.

WHEN Dost Mahomed, at the close of the first Afghan War, returned to the position at Cabul from which we had dethroned him,* he remained faithful to the Treaty of 1855, by which he had bound himself to be "the friend of our friends and the enemy of our enemies," and throughout the Indian Mutiny he was successful in holding back his people from any aggressive movement to the prejudice of England. He died in 1863, and was succeeded by his third son, Shere Ali, who, owing to internal strife, was not securely established on the throne of Cabul until 1868. Although of a morose, phlegmatic, and suspicious nature, he preserved friendly relations with the successive Viceroys of India, Lord Lawrence, Lord Mayo, and Lord Northbrook, through either of whom he would have been glad, on behalf of his people, to have formed a complete alliance with England, offensive and defensive, if it could have been arranged without the presence of English representatives in Afghanistan, to which he had an insuperable objection, as he feared it might again result in serious consequences and complications. It was the policy of the Government not to enter into any close alliance, not to pledge itself to support any particular dynasty in the succession to the throne, not to insist upon the admission of English officers as Residents, but to persevere in what was designated a policy of "masterly inactivity."

Lord Beaconsfield, however, in furtherance of his ambitious views of imperialism, determined to effect a new basis of arrangement with Afghanistan and its Ameer, and accordingly Lord Lytton (son of the great novelist, Sir Edward Bulwer Lytton, afterwards Lord Lytton), was sent out in 1876 to succeed Lord Northbrook as Viceroy, charged with instructions to break away from the old regime, to inaugurate a "spirited policy," and to endeavour to realise his leader's dream of "a scientific frontier."

In 1877 the Khan of Khelat was induced to cede to the English, Quettah, a town of great strategical importance on the high road to Candahar, and commanding the southern route from India to Afghanistan. Shere Ali, as suzerain of Khelat, saw in this transaction an encroachment on his rights and a probable menace to his dominion. Russia thought this was a favourable moment to send a military embassy to Cabul and claimed the right to disregard previous promises in consequence of the English annexation of Quettah.

English relations with Russia were at that time strained, and this embassy to Cabul was interpreted as an attempt to form an alliance with Shere Ali against English interests. Lord Lytton was therefore instructed to send an embassy ("too large for a mission and too small for an army" as Lord Carnarvon said) towards Cabul and, in spite of the strongly expressed wish of the Ameer, to demand the reception of the mission and of a permanent British Resident. On the 21st September, 1878, the envoy left Peshawur with a considerable military force numbering a thousand persons and proceeded to the Kyber Pass, where an Afghan officer stopped its further progress until he should be furnished with instructions from his master, the Ameer. A long delay ensued and on

* See page 348.

the 30th of October the British Cabinet sent an ultimatum to Shere Ali demanding the right to maintain a permanent embassy at Cabul. No answer was given, the delay was regarded as an insult to the British flag and before the end of the year Afghanistan was invaded by three columns under Generals Stewart, Roberts, and Biddulph. The Afghan resistance was soon overcome; Candahar was seized, Cabul was occupied by our troops, and the Ameer fled towards Russian territory.

On the 21st of February, 1879, Shere Ali died after a painful illness. He was a disappointed man, and in his fruitless endeavours to maintain the independence of his kingdom had fallen between the "devil and the deep sea." His successor was his son, Yakoub Khan, who had long been subjected by his father to a cruel imprisonment which had greatly impaired his otherwise vigorous manhood.

THE AMEER YAKOUB KHAN AND MAJOR CAVAGNARI SIGNING THE TREATY OF GUNDAMUK.

One of his first acts, owing to the defection of many of his chiefs, was to seek an interview with Sir Louis Cavagnari, the British Envoy, who had been sent to watch and, if possible, to counteract the effect of the persistent advance of Russia towards the frontier of British India, and who was then in camp at Gundamuk, a place between Jellalabad and Cabul. The Ameer was received with much pomp and was honoured with a royal salute, and after negociations, lasting from the 8th to the 25th of May, 1879, he signed the Treaty of Gundamuk, ceding, or appearing to cede, what Lord Beaconsfield termed the "scientific frontier," making himself a feudatory of the British Crown, vesting the external relations of Afghanistan in the British Government and consenting to the residence of British agents within his dominions. In consideration of these concessions the British Government contracted to support him against foreign aggression and pay him an annual subsidy of £60,000.

Under this treaty Sir Louis Cavagnari became British Resident at Cabul, and on the 24th of July, with his staff and a modest escort of 75 soldiers of the Guides, he took up his quarters in the Balla-Hissar, near to the palace of the Ameer. Ten days later there was repeated the terrible tragedy of 1841.* A wild fanatical mob of Afghans whom the Ameer had no power, and perhaps no wish, to restrain, surged round the British Embassy. Defence seemed hopeless; resistance could not last long. Cavagnari and his household, consisting of a secretary, a surgeon, and Lieut. Hamilton commanding the escort of 26 troopers and 50 men of the corps of Guides, found themselves besieged, and despite overwhelming odds, maintained gallantly, hour after hour, the all but hopeless defence. At length the gates were forced, the buildings were set on fire, escape was impossible, and Cavagnari and every soul in the ill-fated garrison perished in the flames.

Thus "the policy of which Lord Lytton was the figure head had come down with a bloody crash, and the masterly inactivity of wise John Lawrence stood vindicated in the eyes of Europe and of Asia."

A summary punishment was to follow speedily, although the difficulties in the way of accomplishing it seemed almost insurmountable. The bitter Afghan winter was approaching, there were only about 6,500 available troops, nevertheless by the 5th of September a plan of campaign was settled, and the command of the "little army of invasion and retribution" was given to Sir Frederick Roberts (afterwards Lord Roberts) who was even then esteemed as one of the most brilliant soldiers of the British army. "The officers and men who served under him," wrote Mr. Archibald Forbes, the famous war correspondent,† "believed in him enthusiastically, and, what with soldiers is the convincing assurance of whole-souled confidence, they had bestowed on him an affectionate nick-name—they knew him among themselves as 'Little Bobs.'"

General Roberts, with that promptitude which has always characterised his actions, left Simla on the 6th of September with Colonel Charles Macgregor, C.B., as chief of staff, and after fighting his way in sharp skirmishes arrived at Kushi, within 48 miles of Cabul, on the 1st of October.

Yakoub Khan, who had held himself personally responsible for the safety of the ill-fated Cavagnari, heard of the approach of the avenging army in deadly fear, and resolved, under what impulses it is difficult to say, to fly from Cabul and commit himself to the protection of General Roberts and his army. It was in vain that the Ameer pleaded with the General to delay his advance; not for an hour would he do so; all he would guarantee was the personal safety of Yakoub Khan in the camp until it should be known whether he was in any way implicated in the murder of the Resident. On the morning of the 2nd he marched his whole force from Kushi towards Cabul.

He met with strong opposition on the way and the first fight of the campaign took place at Charasiah, in which less than half of the force was engaged—the whole force was "a mere detachment marching against a nation of fighting men plentifully supplied with artillery." So gallantly did they fight that they routed the army of Cabul and captured the whole of the artillery it had brought into the field. The Afghan loss was estimated at about 300 killed; the British loss was 20 killed and 67 wounded.

On the 11th Sir Frederick Roberts entered the Balla-Hissar and went straight to the ruin which a few weeks earlier had been the British Residency. "The commander of the avenging army looked with sorrowful eyes on the scene of heroism and slaughter, on the smoke-blackened walls, the blood splashes on the white-washed walls, the still

* See page 353.

† "The Afghan Wars, 1839-1842, and 1878-80." By Archibald Forbes.

smouldering *débris*, the half-burned skulls and bones in the blood-dabbled chamber where apparently the final struggle had been fought out. He stood in the great breach in the quarters of the Guides where the gate had been blown in after the last of the sorties made by the gallant Hamilton, and lingered in the tattered wreck of poor Cavagnari's drawing room, its walls dinted with bullet-pits, its floor and walls brutally defiled." *

ROBERTS' VISIT TO RUINS OF BRITISH EMBASSY, CABUL.

At Cabul a military commission sat to try the men who were accused of being concerned in the murder of the Envoy, and of treason in offering armed resistance to British troops acting in support of the Ameer, who had put himself under their protection. Many executions took place, and after that Sir Frederick Roberts proclaimed an amnesty in favour of all who had not taken any part whatever in the attack on the Residency.

Meanwhile Yakoub Khan grew heartily sick of the anomalous position he held as "guest" in the camp of the avenging army, although he is said to have come to the conclusion that he would rather be a grass cutter in the British camp than remain Ameer

* "The Afghan Wars, 1839-1842, and 1878-80." By Archibald Forbes.

of Afghanistan. He therefore abdicated, and on the 1st of December was sent a prisoner to Peshawur, possibly, as was then thought, to await his trial in India for complicity in the murder. No sooner had he gone than Mahomed Jan, one of the ablest of the Afghan leaders, raised an enormous force and an insurrection broke out at Cabul of so formidable a nature that General Roberts had to leave the city and fight his way to the cantonments at Sherpur where his supplies were stored. While he was on the defensive at Sherpur, and Cabul was in the hands of Mahomed Jan, he informed the Indian authorities of his situation and need of reinforcements, and ordered up General Charles Gough's brigade from Jugdulluk. Then he made good the defences and awaited the attack of the great Afghan Instead there came proposals from Mahomed Jan that if Roberts would evacuate Afghanistan, leaving behind him two officers as hostages and engaging that Yakoub Khan should return to Cabul as Ameer, he should encounter no molestation. Roberts' reply was, of course, an indignant and point blank refusal, and on the 23rd the assault on Sherpur began. It was short and sharp—and Mahomed Jan signally failed in his attack. "Before daybreak of the 24th the formidable combination, which had included all the fighting elements of North Eastern Afghanistan, and under whose banners it was believed that more than 100,000 armed men had mustered, was no more. Not only had it broken up, it had disappeared. Neither in the city, nor in the adjacent villages, nor on the surrounding heights was a man to be seen. So hurried had been the Afghan dispersal that the dead lay unburied where they had fallen. His nine days on the defensive had cost General Roberts singularly little in casualties; his losses were 18 killed and 68 wounded The enemy's loss from first to last of the rising was reckoned to be not under 3,000." *

That same day Roberts re-occupied Cabul and Balla-Hissar, completely triumphant, before the reinforcements reached him from India. Although there was little fear of a second general rising, Roberts during the months he spent in these winter quarters prepared for any emergency that might arise by strengthening the defences at Sherpur and constructing military roads.

On the 2nd of May Sir Frederick Roberts resigned his position into the hands of Sir Donald Stewart, who arrived at Cabul from Candahar and took over the chief command in North Eastern Afghanistan. When Sir Donald Stewart began his march towards Cabul he left General Primrose in Candahar with the Bombay division of his force, and took with him the Bengal division consisting of two infantry brigades and a cavalry brigade. No sooner had he passed the limit of the Candahar province when difficulties of a serious nature began. He found himself in the midst of swarming hordes of natives who, in gathering force, marched beside his army in threatening attitude and greatly harassed his movements. Then the enemy resolved on fighting, and on the 19th of April occurred the battle of Ahmed Khel, about thirty miles south of Ghuznee, in which between 2,000 and 3,000 of the enemy were slain out of an estimated force of 12,000. Sir Donald Stewart then resumed his march and arrived in Cabul on the 2nd of May. By the reinforcement he had brought with him the field force at Cabul was increased to a strength of about 18,000 men.

Early in 1880 there were two claimants for the throne of Afghanistan—Abdurrahman (or Abdur Rahman), a grandson of Dost Mahomed and an exile, who lived in Turkestan, and was subsidised and protected by Russia; and Ayoub Khan a son of the ex-Ameer Shere Ali, who raised an army at Herat for the purpose of marching against the British garrison at Candahar.

* "The Afghan Wars, 1839-1842, and 1878-80." By Archibald Forbes.

Abdurrahman appeared in Northern Afghanistan in March and a formidable rising took place in support of his claims. At that time Mr. Gladstone had returned to office, Lord Lytton had resigned and the Marquess of Ripon had succeeded him as Viceroy. The Imperial Government was eager to wash its hands of Afghanistan and to devolve the responsibility and administration upon some trustworthy prince. The claims of Abdurrahman were favourably entertained, and after much negociation he was informed that subject to certain reservations the British Government was willing that he should establish over Afghanistan—including Herat when he should have conquered it—as complete and extensive authority as was swayed by any previous Ameer. "The British Government would exercise no interference in the internal government of those territories, nor would it demand the acceptance of an English Resident anywhere within Afghanistan, although for the convenience of ordinary friendly intercourse it might be agreed upon that a Mahomedan Agent of the British Government should be stationed at Cabul."

The ceremony of recognising the new Ameer was held at Sherpur on the 22nd of July. Sir Donald Stewart presided, and Mr. Lepel Griffin, a distinguished member of the political department of the Indian Civil Service, who had been sent on the special service of "furthering the acceptance of a capable ruler to be left in possession," was the principal spokesman

While this was going on, and just as the Cabul force was about to evacuate Afghanistan in two separate bodies and by two separate routes, terrible news of disaster in the south was received.

This is what had happened. General Primrose had been left in Candahar with a very weak force—under 5,000 of all ranks—but it was thought that in case of need he could co-operate with the troops of Shere Ali Khan who had been Governor of Candahar but had recently been nominated hereditary ruler of the whole province under the title of "Wali." In June, intelligence arrived that Ayoub Khan, the rival claimant to the throne of Afghanistan, had gathered together an enormous army in Herat and was advancing on Candahar. The Indian Government at once directed that General Burrows should be sent with half the garrison of Candahar to check his advance and defend the passage of the river Helmund, in co-operation with the Wali whose territories lay beyond the river. The troops of the Wali mutinied and deserted to Ayoub Khan, and General Burrows was obliged forthwith to retreat to a distance of some thirty miles in rear of the river. There on the 27th of July was fought the terrible battle of Maiwand. General Burrows had no idea of the strength of the Afghan force, and unwisely commenced the attack with only a little over a couple of thousand men—only 500 of whom were British (the men of the 66th or "Old Berkshire" regiment)—and 12 guns, against an enemy of 12,000 men and three times his own strength in artillery. For six hours the British troops fought with gallantry and desperation, but, partly through blunders which were never to be explained, and in spite of the splendid bearing of the 66th, the Indian troops broke and fled, the ammunition gave out, and the order for retreat was given. All that was left of General Burrows' brigade struggled back to Candahar fighting its way through hordes of armed villagers who attacked them with knives or bullets, while Ayoub Khan tarried to plunder the camp.

"About mid-day of the 28th, the broken remnants of the brigade reached Candahar. When the casualties were ascertained it became evident how disastrous to the British arms had been the combat of Maiwand. Out of a total of 2,476 engaged, no fewer than 964 were killed; the wounded numbered 167; 331 followers and 201 horses were killed, and 7 followers and 68 horses wounded. Since Chillianwallah the British arms in Asia had not suffered loss so severe."

THE DISASTER AT MAIWAND. SAVING THE GUNS.

General Primrose was shut up in Candahar with the survivors of Maiwand, and on the 8th of August Ayoub Khan commenced the siege of the city.

In the meantime news of the terrible disaster reached Cabul (on the 29th of July), just as Sir Donald Stewart was about to evacuate Afghanistan by the Kyber route and Sir Frederick Roberts by the Kuram valley. All the arrangements were, of course, immediately stopped. Candahar must be relieved at whatever cost, and the "gallant

ON THE ROAD TO CANDAHAR.

Bobs" at once volunteered to lead a relieving and avenging force—an offer which Sir Donald Stewart promptly accepted.

The great march of Sir Frederick Roberts from Cabul to Candahar with a force of 10,000 men is one of the celebrated events in the annals of the British army. On the 8th of August the column left Cabul, and before it lay 320 miles of mountainous and almost pathless country. "Speed being an object, and since the column might have to traverse rough ground, no wheeled artillery or transport accompanied it; the guns were carried on mules, the baggage was severely cut down, the supplies carried were reduced

to a minimum, and the transport animals, numbering 8,590, consisted of mules, ponies, and donkeys. It was known that the country could supply flour, sheep, and forage."

In a temperature of 84° to 92° in the shade, the troops marched on day by day without having the customary two days halt in the week, and arrived at Candahar on the 31st, having covered the 320 miles in twenty-three days without the loss of a man! For twenty out of the twenty-three days, the average daily march was a fraction over fifteen miles.

On the 1st of September the indomitable army attacked Ayoub Khan in the position he had taken up to the north-west of Candahar and completely routed him, capturing the whole of his guns and inflicting heavy loss.

The war was then practically over. Ayoub Khan fled to Herat; the British troops were withdrawn from Cabul and Candahar; Abdurrahman was firmly established as Ameer of Afghanistan, and he kept faithfully the pledges he made, and proved himself a staunch friend to Great Britain and a good neighbour to India.

CHAPTER XLVIII.

ENGLAND AND EGYPT.

1875-1900.

MR. DISRAELI dearly loved to indulge in any bold stroke of policy with a dash of sensationalism in it, and an opportunity for a display of this passion occurred in 1875.

The Suez Canal—one of the most costly and magnificent enterprises of modern times, which owed its existence to M. Ferdinand Lesseps—was opened in 1869. To the accomplishment of that great work England in no way contributed—on the contrary it is no exaggeration to say that it was carried through in spite of her stolid indifference if not her direct opposition. Three years before the opening of the Canal Ismail Pasha "kissed the carpet," as he termed it, at Constantinople; in other words he bribed the Sublime Porte to grant him the title of Khedive* and to confirm the succession in his family. He became immensely popular, especially among money-brokers; he borrowed money enormously, squandered it lavishly, and then borrowed more, until in 1873 his personal liabilities were £11,000,000, and the floating debt of the country £26,000,000 besides an enormous funded debt. How to meet his responsibilities was a problem he could only partly solve, and that only in one way. He held 176,000 shares in the Suez Canal Company—nearly one half of the original 400,000 shares—and determined to dispose of them, to another French Company if possible. Mr. Frederick Greenwood, the editor of a London evening paper, chanced to hear of this determination, and at once sought an interview with the Prime Minister on the subject. It was urged that any of the Powers might buy the shares, and that the purchaser would be in a position at any moment to stop the passage of English troops through the Canal, and otherwise do incalculable injury to the Empire. Entirely on his own responsibility, and without consulting his Cabinet, Disraeli purchased the whole of the Khedive's shares, and one fine morning in November, 1875, the world was startled to hear that for the sum of four millions sterling, cash down, Great Britain had become possessed of one half of the Suez Canal. It was a bold, dramatic stroke in politics, and, as it happened, a splendid stroke in finance. In course of time the four millions was paid off out of the interest derived from the shares, which for a number of years paid from 17 to 21 per cent.; the shares rose in value from four to eighteen millions, and the income upon them has been, and still is, a considerable item in the revenue of the country. Moreover, the proportion of British tonnage to the tonnage of all nations using the canal is seventy-five per cent.

So far so good. But in 1876 Lord Salisbury, not perhaps so much to safeguard British interests as to protect those of speculators, mostly foreigners, interfered in the question of Egyptian finance, which the reckless Khedive had brought to almost hopeless confusion. Mr. Goschen, in conjunction with M. Joubert, were sent out as a Commission of Inquiry and "to devise a scheme for consolidating the Egyptian debt in the common

* A title implying a rank or authority superior to a Prince or a Viceroy but inferior to an independent Sovereign.

interests of the bondholders." This inquiry resulted in the appointment of Mr. (afterwards Sir Charles) Rivers Wilson as Minister of Finance, an appointment which excited the jealousy of France, and could only be appeased by the appointment of

PORT SAID—ENTRANCE TO SUEZ CANAL. EARLY MORNING.

M. de Blignières as his colleague. And so began the unauthorised Dual Control of Egypt by two Governments with opposite interests, from which so much mischief subsequently arose.

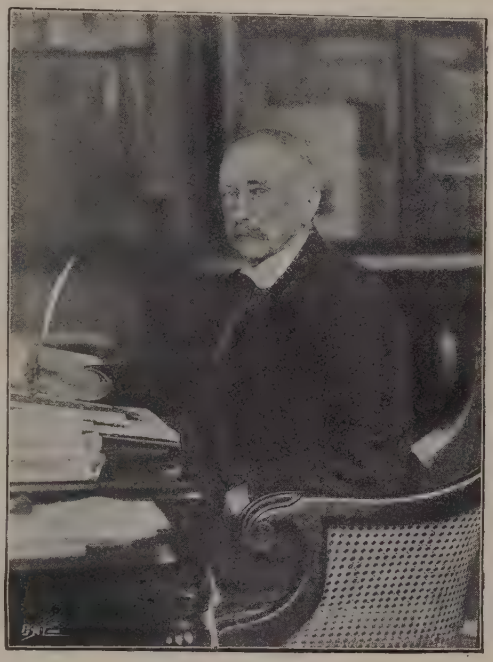
The position was intolerable to the Khedive, who used his best endeavours to thwart the scheme; but he failed in carrying out his intentions, and in consequence of representations made to the Sultan by Germany, Austria, and Russia, as well as by Great Britain and France. he was deposed in 1879, and his son Tewfik reigned in his

AFTER THE BOMBARDMENT OF ALEXANDRIA. MASSACRE OF EUROPEANS.

stead. The Ministry of Finance was then entrusted to M. de Blignières and Mr. Baring (afterwards Lord Revelstoke), who was succeeded by Mr. Colvin.

The native ministers and officials, seeing that the "hope of their gains had gone," soon grew tired of the dual control, and put themselves under the leadership of a colonel of the Egyptian army, Arabi Pasha (Ahmed Arabi Bey), who raised the cry, "Egypt for the Egyptians!" He soon gathered around him a large body of malcontents, and the troops were ready and willing to follow him. The dual control came to an end, and Arabi, elevated to the rank and title of Pasha, and promoted by the Khedive in his extremity to be Minister of War, became practically dictator of the country. He had lit a fire which was not easily to be put out

One of his first acts was to mass a large number of troops in Alexandria, to strengthen the fortifications and prepare the defences, and this, exciting suspicion, led to the Mediterranean fleet being sent to anchor off the city. While this was the state of affairs a rising of the native population against the Europeans took place (June 11th, 1882); a few English and French subjects were killed; a large number of others, chiefly Maltese, Italians, and Greeks, were massacred or wounded, and a general flight of Europeans from Alexandria and Cairo ensued.



LORD WOLSELEY.

This event, combined with the fact that Arabi directed renewed energy to fortifying the city, led Admiral Sir Beauchamp Seymour to demand the stoppage of the works on the fortress and the surrender of the batteries to the British within twenty-four hours. No reply having been received within the specified time the British fleet bombarded the works on the morning of the 11th of July, and in a few hours the forts were silenced. Arabi withdrew his troops, and then the city fell to the mercy of the mob. They set fire to it, pillaged the houses, massacred the Europeans, who had failed to make their escape, to the number of 2,000, and reduced the city to a mere mass of smouldering ruin.

An English military expedition was at once sent out under the command of Sir Garnet Wolseley, consisting of 23,000 men, subsequently re-inforced by 11,000 more and an Indian contingent of nearly 8,000. His first act was to secure the safety of the Canal by destroying the dams that had been thrown across it to stop the supply of water, and then to send General Graham forward to Kassassin, where in a brilliant action the Egyptian army was put to rout, and Arabi retired to Tel-el-Kebir.

On the 13th of September, early in the morning, Sir Garnet Wolseley, at the head of 11,000 bayonets, 2,000 sabres, and 60 guns, surprised the Egyptian army—comprising, it was believed, some 25,000 men—at Tel-el-Kebir, and attacked them with such sudden and tremendous vigour that in little more than half-an-hour their position was broken up

and they fled completely routed. Then Wolseley led his men across the desert to Cairo without drawing rein. "The annals of war," it was said, "nay, the romances of chivalry, relate no more stirring exploit than this desert ride under the hot Egyptian sun, and then the immediate capture of a great and populous city which yielded with less ado than Jericho to the trumpets of Joshua." Arabi was captured, tried, and sentenced to death, a sentence that was immediately commuted to perpetual exile, and he was sent a prisoner to Ceylon with other leaders of the insurrection. The war that had cost England £4,600,000, was at an end, and Sir Beauchamp Seymour and Sir Garnet Wolseley were raised to the peerage. An English army of occupation, consisting of 10,000 men, was left in Egypt, and Mr. Gladstone made the unwise statement that it was only a temporary occupation, and gave a pledge that so soon as the Khedive could maintain his position without foreign aid it should be withdrawn. The Khedive was restored to authority on condition that he carried out certain reforms, fiscal and social, insisted upon by Lord Dufferin, the English plenipotentiary.

Worse troubles were unhappily in store before the Egyptian difficulties could be settled. In 1870 the Mahomedan Arabs of the Soudan were first brought entirely under Egyptian rule, and General Gordon was appointed Governor-General of this vast region in 1874, but was recalled immediately after the fall of Ismail Pasha. Then a reign of terror set in: hordes of Turks, Circassians, Bashi-Bazouks, and others overran the country and mercilessly plundered the Soudanese; the Egyptian mis-rule became intolerable, and tens of thousands were panting to throw off the hateful yoke. At this juncture (1881) there appeared a Mahomedan Messiah, or Redeemer, known as the Mahdi, who proclaimed a religious war, not only against the Egyptian Government but against all who should oppose either him or his mission.

The Mahdi was Mahomed Ahmed, a native of the province of Dongola, son of Abdullahi, a carpenter. He was apprenticed to an uncle, a boat builder, from whom he received a thrashing, which induced him to run away to Khartoum, where he joined the free school of a Faki—a learned man, head of a sect of Dervishes—and studied religion. He wandered from place to place and from school to school until at length he settled in the island of Abba, near Kana, on the White Nile. Here, in a cave he had excavated, he was wont to repeat, for hours at a time, one of the ninety-nine names of the Deity, accompanied by fasting, incense burning, and prayers. The fame of his sanctity spread, wealth poured into his treasury, he married many wives with large dowries in cattle, divorcing some when the legal number of four was exceeded, and in May, 1881, proclaimed himself as the Mahdi who should appear just before the Last Judgment, as foretold by Mahomet the prophet. He announced that he had "a divine mission to reform Islam, to establish a universal equality, a universal law, a universal religion, and a community of goods ("beytal-mal.") Also, that all who did not believe in him should be destroyed, be they Christians, Mahomedans, or Pagans."* This was communicated to the Fakis or learned men, teachers supernaturally endowed, and to their followers, the Dervishes, multitudes of whom banded themselves together under the banner of the tactful and able Mahdi, who, besides being a religious enthusiast, was a daring and skilful commander in the field. Soon the whole of the Soudan rallied round him, and success attended all his early encounters with the Egyptian troops. His capture of the town of El Obeid, in the province of Kardofan, caused the Egyptian government to send out an army of 11,000 men under the command of General Hicks—"Hicks Pasha,"—a retired officer of the Indian army, to check the further progress of the Mahdi and to subdue the

* "The Ruin of the Soudan," by Henry Russell. 1892. p. 22.

Soudan. When this large force was near to El Obeid a treacherous guide led it into a rocky defile where, unable to use their guns, the army became hemmed in by the foe, and, after three days' desperate fighting, was cut to pieces, and not a man escaped. Hicks Pasha, a number of British officers, and the brilliant war correspondent of the *Daily News*, Mr. O'Donovan, of Merv fame, were among the slain. (Nov. 3rd, 1883).

Taking this as a sign from heaven confirming the divinity of his mission, the Mahdi spread desolation right and left, and at Dongola, Berber, Tokar, Khartoum, and other places garrisoned by Egyptian troops under European officers, the inhabitants were in deadly peril. Especially was this the case at Khartoum, where there were 11,000 persons, many of them Christians, and a large number holding offices in the Egyptian civil service, and the problem for the British Government was how to deliver them from the impending danger. Early in 1884 Mr. Gladstone decided to abandon the Soudan (the wisdom of this decision gave rise to very severe controversy), and send out some highly-competent officer to Khartoum, to relieve Colonel de Coetlogan, the British officer in command, to withdraw all the garrisons, and to arrange for the future government of the country.

At that time General Charles Gordon—"Chinese Gordon," the heroic leader of the Ever-Victorious Army in China who, with almost super-human vigour suppressed the Tai-ping rebellion in 1865—was in London, and just on the eve of proceeding to the Congo in the service of the King of the Belgians. On the representation by the English Government of the urgency of the case in the Soudan he was asked to accept the responsible post of restoring order there. He was *the* man for the position, as he had been the successful Governor there in 1874, and had won the confidence of the natives, and he at once consented to undertake the arduous task. He left England on January 18th, 1884, and arrived at Khartoum on the 18th of February.

In the meantime affairs in Egypt had become more complicated. Baker Pasha (formerly a well-known Colonel in the English Cavalry) was sent by the Egyptian Government with a force of 3,500 men to Suakim to attempt the relief of the besieged garrisons of Tokar and Sinkat. He advanced from Trinkitat on the 4th of February, accompanied by a brave volunteer, Colonel Frederick Burnaby, one of the most daring and dashing officers in her Majesty's service, whose intrepid journeys, described in his books "A Ride to Khiva" and "On Horseback through Asia Minor," had brought him into world-wide fame. At El-Teb, near Tokar, Baker was attacked by the Arabs, commanded by "the redoubtable and indestructible" Osman Digna, the Mahdi's indomitable lieutenant. Baker's half-trained force was completely overwhelmed and routed, and after vainly attempting to rally it, he and Burnaby had to fly for their lives.

Soon after this Sinkat fell, and the garrison was ruthlessly massacred. Then Tokar surrendered.

On the 10th of February Admiral Hewett took supreme command at Suakim where, a week later, General Graham arrived with reinforcements and heard the melancholy news that Tokar had fallen. On the 29th (leap year) he advanced with about 4,000 troops, chiefly British, to El-Teb and made a desperate attack on Osman Digna, defeating him and causing him to retire after four hours' hard fighting. He then re-took Tokar, and on the 13th of March made another attack on Osman Digna at Tamai. A desperate battle ensued, and at first it seemed that the British would be defeated, as they wavered and broke under the shock of a tremendous charge by the Arab spearmen. In the end, however, the Arabs were defeated, Osman Digna's camp was captured and burnt, and the war, so far as this part of the Soudan was concerned, was practically at an

end. General Graham, according to instructions, withdrew his troops from the country, leaving only a garrison at Suakim, and disregarded the request of General Gordon for two squadrons of cavalry to be sent to Berber for his relief.

When General Gordon, accompanied by Colonel Stewart, arrived in Khartoum he was received with great enthusiasm by the garrison and the inhabitants. He was at first sanguine of the success of his mission. He possessed the confidence, as he thought, of the English Government, the love of the English people, and the special favour of the Khedive of Egypt, who, in appointing him Governor-General of the Soudan for the second time, paid a high tribute in writing to his tact and experience, and the excellent services he had already rendered in the Soudan, "which," he said, "have endeared you to the people of these provinces, and made them acknowledge the good derived from your efforts to introduce among them tranquility and good government." He also issued a proclamation "to all the Mudirs, Governors, Cadis, Ulema, Notables, Merchants, Bedouin Sheikhs, and to all Natives and Bedouins of the Soudan," commanding them to obey Gordon's orders, to follow his advice, and in no way to oppose his counsels. The proclamation concluded in these pious and doubtless well-meaning words: "Be all of you united as one man in aiding him to bring about a better state of affairs, to restore order and tranquility, and to expel from the minds of the people the false notions which the leaders of revolt have instilled into them, and may the blessing of the Almighty fulfil my earnest entreaties to Him on your behalf!"

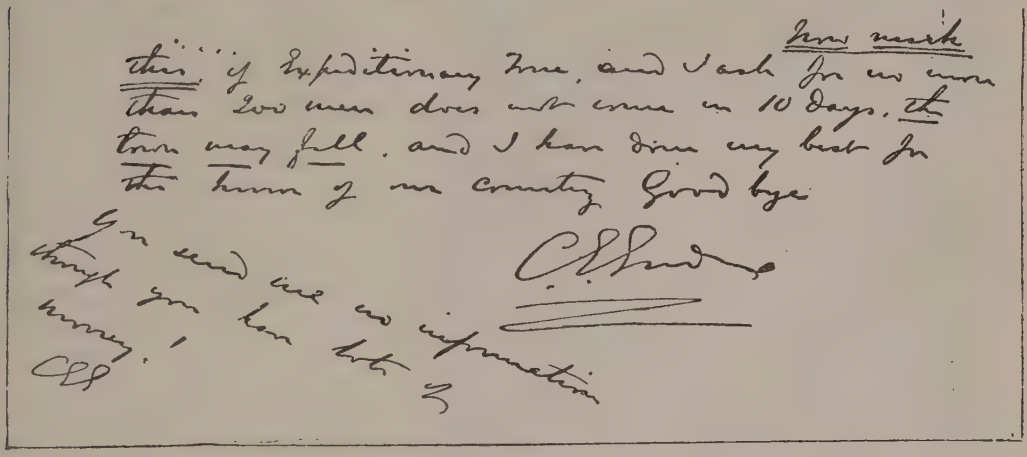
The mission of Gordon was to arrange for the withdrawal of the garrisons from the Soudan. He soon found that his task was a hopeless one. There were only two things possible to save the situation; either the Mahdi must be annihilated by British troops, not then forthcoming, or a strong Government must be established to repress anarchy in the Soudan. He sent an urgent appeal therefore to the British Government to be either supplied with troops or to be allowed to appoint Zubehr Pasha as suserain of the Soudan. Zubehr was an old enemy of Gordon's when in former days he ruled the country, and was a cruel and violent man, steeped in the iniquities of the slave trade; but he was nevertheless the only man who had a wide and powerful influence in the province. On the Government refusing both these requests, and telling Gordon he must do the best he could on the resources at his disposal, he wrote: "I am now free to act according to circumstances. I shall hold out if I can, and if not, retire to the Equator, leaving to you the disgrace of abandoning the garrisons, and the certainty that you will be forced to smash up the Mahdi."

Never was mortal man in more harassing and distressing circumstances or in more deadly peril than was Gordon in Khartoum. In less than a month after his arrival he was besieged by the overwhelming forces of the Mahdi, and he soon found that in addition to troubles from without there was treachery within the garrison. Among those who had hailed him as "Sultan, Father, and Saviour!" in February, were two pashas who, on March 16th, when Gordon made a sortie, betrayed him to the enemy, with the result that he suffered a reverse and the loss of 200 men. Without any hesitation Gordon had the traitors arrested, tried by court-martial, and shot.

Then there lay before him nine months of trial and suspense, during which time he was surrounded by a vast army of vindictive and merciless men, and a treacherous people within the walls of the doomed city. It was in vain that he appealed to the Home Government for assistance; they maintained that the danger was imaginary rather than real; they appeared to be totally indifferent to their devoted servant, and turned a deaf ear to the various requests he made and plans he suggested. All the help he got was an

order to hold on to Khartoum till further notice. In face of these refusals he appealed from the Government to the private munificence of "millionaires in England and America" to send him money wherewith to raise a couple of thousand or so of Turkish troops to save the otherwise doomed city. Now the English people loved Gordon; they loved his manly independence, his bold, dashing heroism, his simple child-like religious faith, his broad and beautiful philanthropy, and it was to their indignant and persistent cry that in the autumn of the year the Government yielded, and determined, too late, to send out a force for the rescue of Gordon from his perilous position.

In August, 1884, Lord Wolseley, the hero of Tel-el-Kebir, made his way up the Nile to attempt the relief of Khartoum. With splendid energy and amid great hardships, the English army forced its passage up the Nile; a column under General Sir Herbert Stewart, with the famous camel corps, marched through the scorching desert between Korti and Metemneh; from time to time information was received that Gordon was still holding out, though in dire straits; several desperate battles were fought and



GORDON'S LAST MESSAGE. DATED DECEMBER 14TH, 1884.

won by the British, the Arabs fighting with reckless and fanatical fury. In one of them—the battle of Abou Klea—the brave Fred Burnaby fell; in another—the battle of Metemneh—the gallant General Stewart lost his life, and was succeeded by Sir Charles Wilson.

At length—on the 28th of January, 1885—Sir Charles Wilson steamed up to Khartoum. Alas! it was too late! Only two days previously a traitor had thrown open the gate of the city to the Mahdi's troops, who rushed into the town, deluged it with blood, and shot down Gordon, who had refused to surrender. A horrible massacre followed, in which it was reckoned that at least 4,000 men of his garrison were cruelly butchered. The siege had lasted 319 days.

When Parliament opened on the 19th of February "Mr. Gladstone endeavoured to excuse the Government for their undoubted share in the disaster. 'General Gordon contentedly forbore,' he said, 'indeed, more than contentedly—he determinedly forbore—to make use of the means of personal safety, which were at all times open to him.' The words seemed to be swept from the Prime Minister's lips by a hurricane of indignant exclamations, and he withdrew them. He meant that Gordon

might have escaped down the river in a steamer, leaving the loyal Egyptians in Khartoum to their fate. Gordon was not that kind of man. Party discipline prevailed to protect the Government from overthrow on a vote of censure: they managed to put into their lobby 302 against 288." *

CHARLES GEORGE GORDON, C.B.
Major-General Royal Engineers,
Killed at Khartoum, 26th January, 1885.

Throughout the English-speaking world there was mingled sorrow and indignation at what came to be called "the betrayal of Gordon," in which none shared more deeply than the Queen, who wrote to the sister of General Gordon in these words :—

Osborne, 17th February, 1885.
Dear Miss Gordon,

How shall I write to you? or how shall I attempt to express *what I feel?* To think of your dear, noble, heroic brother, who served his country and his Queen so truly, so heroically, with a self-sacrifice so edifying to the world, not having been rescued! That the promises of support were not fulfilled—which I so frequently and constantly pressed on those who asked him to go—is to me *grief inexpressible!*—indeed, it has made me ill! My heart bleeds for you, his sister, who have gone through so many anxieties on his account, and who loved the dear brother as he deserved to be. You are all so good and trustful, and have such strong faith, that you will be sustained even now, when real absolute evidence of your dear brother's death does not exist—but I fear there cannot be much doubt of it. Some day I hope to see you again, to tell you all I cannot express. My daughter Beatrice, who has felt quite as I do, wishes me to express her deepest sympathy with you. I hear so many expressions of sorrow and sympathy from *abroad:* from my eldest daughter, the Crown Princess, and from my cousin, the King

* Sir Herbert Maxwell Bart, M.P.

of the Belgians, the very warmest. Would you express to your other sisters and your elder brother my true sympathy, and what I do so keenly feel—the *stain* left upon England for your dear brother's cruel, though heroic fate!

Ever, dear Miss Gordon, yours sincerely and sympathisingly,

V.R.I.

Great preparations were made for a campaign of vengeance, but nothing came of them. A million sterling was spent on the material for a railway from Suakim to Berber, of which only a few miles were laid, and then the scheme was postponed. In July the Mahdi died of fever at his new city of Omdurman, and this afforded an excuse for the quiet withdrawal of the army and the abandonment of the Soudan to the rebels after fixing the frontier of Egypt at Wady Halfa, just below the second cataract of the Nile.

The successor to the Mahdi was the Khalifa Abdullahi, to whom the Khalifas and Emirs swore fidelity on the day of the Mahdi's death. He found Mahdism a religious movement; he made it an organised system by which he, with his relations and his tribe, became masters of the Soudan. "He brought his kinsfolk, the Baggara tribesmen, to Omdurman, and these, with the black riflemen, or Jehadia, and the mulazemin, whose numbers he largely increased, formed a force with which he could set at defiance the most formidable Emirs if their ambition crossed his own. There were many ways of getting rid of dangerous men of this class. Some were sent with their tribesmen on hopeless expeditions; others were accused of some crime against Mahdism and put to death; others were exiled to the swamps of Fashoda or far-off Regaf. He had to meet and crush more than one beginning of revolt. But he was a strong man, knowing his own mind, and he always rose to the danger." *

Within ten years Mahdism had so much declined as to have ceased to be a fanatical religious movement; it had become under the Khalifa merely an instrument to hold him in possession of the Soudan, a means of enriching his tribe, and, as he hoped, of securing the succession of the Kingship to his sons.

The "Egyptian question" was an interminable one, and cropped up at most inconvenient times and places. It gave, on more than one occasion, umbrage to France and irritation to Italy, and it stood in the way of progress in Africa generally. It was felt on all hands that it was a standing reproach to Great Britain that the vast region Egypt had once occupied should no longer be accessible to the trader, the traveller, and the teacher.

At length, in 1896, it was suddenly determined to send out an expedition to crush the power of the Khalifa and to re-conquer the Soudan. Sir Herbert Kitchener (afterwards Lord Kitchener) was appointed the Sirdar, or Commander-in-chief of the Egyptian army, and associated with him were many well-known men, most of whom greatly distinguished themselves in the campaign, as they did also in the war in South Africa in the last year of the century.†

* *The Daily Chronicle*, November 27th, 1899, on the Death of the Khalifa.

† It is perhaps somewhat invidious to mention only a few names, but among those who took part in the campaign were Colonel Archibald Hunter, Major Broadwood, Major Hector Macdonald, Colonel Wingate, Major Stuart Wortley, General Gatacre, Captain Keppel, R.N., Lieutenant Beatty, R.N., Colonel Wauchope, Brigadier-General Lyttelton, Brigadier-General Maxwell, Colonel Lewis, and Colonel Collinson. Many of these names have become more familiar from their association with the South African War of 1899-1900.

Everywhere success attended our arms from the day (March 12th, 1896) when orders came from England for the Sirdar to advance towards Dongola to the day when the British and Egyptian flags were hoisted on the walls of the ruined palace of Khartoum after the great battle of Omdurman in August, 1898.

A STREET IN CAIRO.

We cannot follow the campaign in detail, or tell the story of the wonderful provision made for the troops, the construction of a railway through the desert, the exploits of the camel corps, the striking instances of individual heroism, or the startling incidents of sanguinary struggles with fanatical hordes—a rough outline must suffice.

The first great battle was at Ferkeh (June 7th, 1896), when, without any warning of approach, the Dervishes were startled into immediate action and met with a great reverse. Despite their stubborn resistance and amazing pluck, their forces were scattered, their leader, Hammuda Idris—together with forty Emirs—was killed, and for miles round the ill-fated town, the river bank and the border of the desert were strewn with their dead. The immediate results and the moral effects of this "ideally complete victory" were great; more than fifty miles of the Nile Valley had been cleared of the Dervishes, and had passed into the possession of the Anglo-Egyptian army. The best portion of the enemy's army on the Nile had ceased to be, and the news of its destruction rang as a warning throughout the whole of the Soudan that the power of the Khalifa was doomed.

It was not till the end of August that the army, about 13,000 strong, marched towards Dongola, the decisive battle of Hafir securing the passage of the Nile and the opening of the way to Dongola. But although the army advanced in battle array, the Dervishes were unable to show fight, and, flying in all directions, leaving goods, guns, and ammunition behind them, the invaders entered Dongola without firing a shot. In a dispatch, written after the fall of Dongola and the subsequent annihilation of its army as an organised force, the Sirdar gave the following account of gains up to that period:—

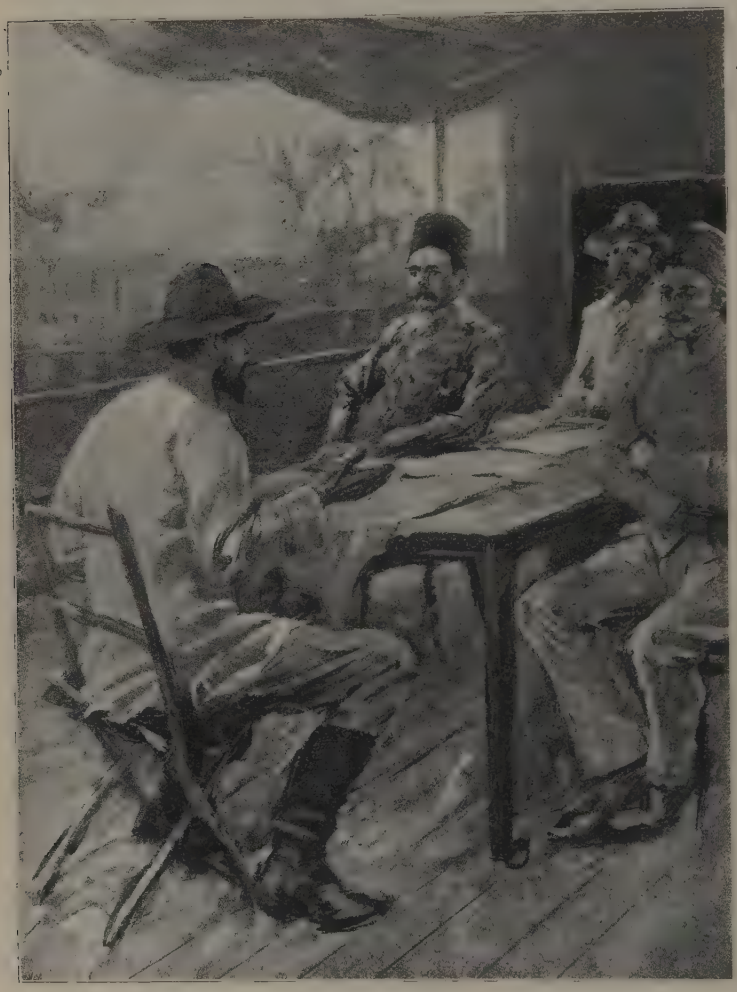
"The result of these operations has been to completely stop the constant raids of the Dervishes on the villages between Assouan and Wady Halfa; to add some 450 miles of the Nile Valley to Egyptian territory, 300 miles of which may be described as of great fertility, and to relieve, to their intense delight, the large and suffering population of Dongola from the barbarous and tyrannical rule of the savage and fanatical Baggaras."

In the following year (August, 1897) the invaders pushed on to Abu Hamed, one of the most important strategic points on the Upper Nile, 233 miles from Halfa. The town was strongly entrenched but insufficiently garrisoned, and fell into the hands of our troops almost within an hour of the firing of the first shot. Berber was similarly abandoned in September, and the way was then open for the Atbara compaign, planned for the spring of 1898.

The battle of Atbara—a horribly sanguinary conflict—ended in the rout and destruction of the Dervishes, and put an end to their advance on the Upper Nile. More than that it cleared the way for the advance to Omdurman and Khartoum, where the Khalifa was making a wild effort "to break the circle of steel that was closing in upon his capital." In August Kitchener marched on Omdurman, the Sacred City of the Mahdi, and one of the largest and most populous cities in all Africa. Here the Khalifa held his court, had built a citadel, stored his ammunition, and had gathered together his mighty men to make a final stand against the all-conquering invaders. But his case was hopeless, and after one long day's fighting the game was up, his army was scattered, and the Khalifa, his son, and Osman Digna were seeking refuge in the desert. "The counting of the Dervish dead as they lay on the field gave the terrible total of 10,824. It is estimated that there were besides these about 15,000 wounded. This would mean that in about four hours' fighting every second man in the Dervish army of 50,000 men was killed or wounded. There were thousands of prisoners; for, when once the battle was lost, all but the fanatic few were only too ready to make their peace with the victors. Seven thousand wounded were turned over to the care of the surgeons. Thousands of prisoners were set at liberty as soon as they had laid down their arms. Only the Emirs and some of the more truculent of the Beggara were detained under guard."*

* A. Hilliard Atteridge, author of "Towards Khartoum."

On the Sunday after the battle, the Sirdar and his staff, with the officers commanding brigades and divisions, and as many of the British officers as could be spared from duty, assembled at Khartoum, beside the building in which Gordon spent his last days, and held a religious service to his memory. In England the battle of Omdurman and the recapture of Khartoum were spoken of as "the avenging of Gordon." "Such an idea," says the writer from whom we have just quoted, "was certainly out of accord with Gordon's own way of thinking, and one of his sisters publicly protested against it. The truer idea was that we had not come for vengeance, but to destroy a hideous tyranny which had undone Gordon's life-work in the Soudan, and of which an end had to be made before Gordon's work could be resumed."



AT FASHODA. THE MEETING BETWEEN THE SIRDAR AND MAJOR MARCHAND ON THE SS. "DAL."

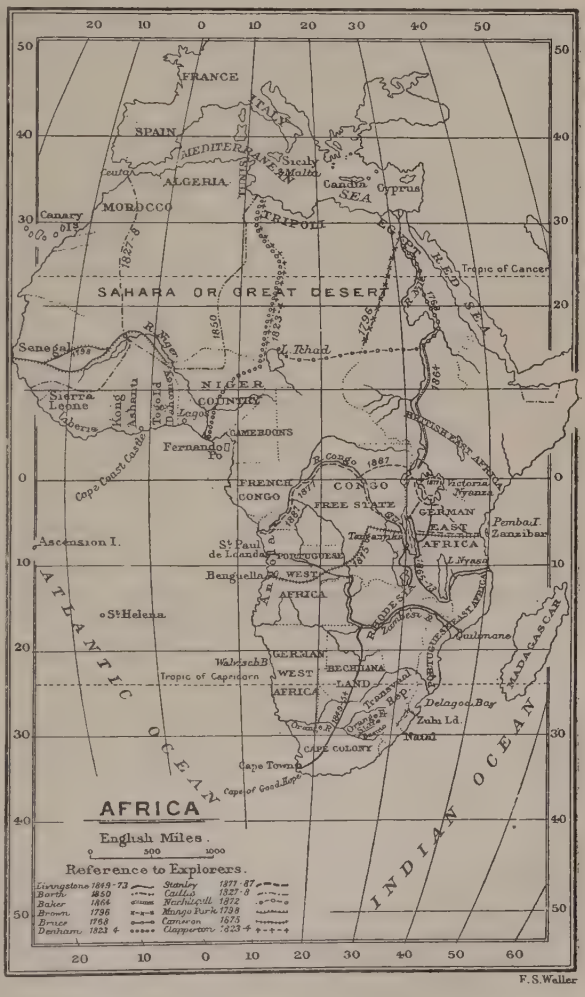
Only a few days after the battle of Omdurman an incident occurred which brought us to the verge of a war with France. A small French force of little more than a hundred men and five officers, under the command of Major Marchand, had seized Fashodâ, a place on the Nile above Khartoum. Lord Salisbury acted with promptitude and decision, and demanded the immediate departure of Major Marchand or "the gravest consequences" would follow. France was at that time struggling with the Dreyfus case, and was otherwise not in a position to take the consequences, and she withdrew her officer. Eventually (March, 1899) a treaty was signed, conceding "that the whole Nile basin falls within the English sphere of influence."

CHAPTER XLIX.

ENGLAND AND SOUTH AFRICA.

ONE of the most important, and at the same time one of the saddest and least creditable chapters in the history of the century is that which relates to our dealings with the Kaffirs, the Zulus, and the Dutch Boers in South Africa. The story has been told a hundred times, and in almost as many different ways, according to the idiosyncrasy of each writer, and we shall therefore limit our narrative as far as possible to plain and generally recognised facts.

The great problem the British Government had to confront in its earlier relations with South Africa was different from any presented by colonisation in Australasia. There, with the exception of New Zealand, the natives gave little or no trouble. In South Africa it was quite otherwise, for although the original Hottentots and Bosjesmans have almost disappeared, the powerful Bantu people, consisting of Kaffirs, Zulus, Bechuanas, and other Negroid tribes, have taken their place, and have given much trouble, while the Boers (farmers), descended from Dutch settlers of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, have given more.



These old Boers were a hardy and stubborn race; they were stern Calvinists, who found in the Old Testament their justification for enslaving the native races, and who hated the English for abolishing the slave trade, and still more so for abolishing slavery; they disliked any kind of control or interference with their liberty; looked with suspicion on all new ideas; would have preferred that the hands of the clock should stand still; abhorred British notions of "progress," which they translated "restlessness;" had

little or no sympathy with the advanced sentiment of treating black men as whites by acknowledging that they had souls as well as bodies, and even less with the philanthropy that would give them education and afterwards political rights; never forgave the British for emancipating the 40,000 slaves in Cape Colony under the Emancipation Act of 1833, nor forgot what they considered the inadequate compensation they received for the loss of their slaves. Holding these views, it is not surprising to find that throughout their history their treatment of the black men, among whom their lot was cast, was not in any case kind or considerate; in some cases it was shocking and brutal. Almost to a man they disliked the missionary, the teacher, explorer, and civiliser, and it is matter of history that when they first settled down in the districts to the north of the Orange River, one of the conditions of burghership was that "each member should take a solemn oath to have no connection whatever with the London Missionary Society."

Ignorance and cruelty generally go hand-in-hand, and it was so with the Boers. They thought nothing of employing forced labour, that is, compelling the natives to work for them without fee or reward, or of shooting them down if they refused. A reliable and impartial witness, Dr. Livingstone, the famous explorer and missionary, says with regard to this: "It is difficult for a person in a civilised country to conceive that any body of men possessing the common attributes of humanity should, with one accord, set out, after loading their own wives and children with caresses, and proceed to shoot down in cold blood men and women, of a different colour it is true, but possessed with domestic feelings and affections equal to their own." And again: "It was long before I could quite give credit to the tales of bloodshed told by native witnesses, and had I received no other testimony but theirs, I should probably have remained sceptical to this day as to the truth of the accounts; but when I found the Boers themselves, some bewailing and denouncing, others glorying in the bloody scenes in which they had been themselves the actors, I was compelled to admit the validity of the testimony, and try to account for the cruel anomaly. They are all traditionally religious, tracing their descent from some of the best men (Huguenots and Dutch) the world ever saw. Hence they claim to themselves the title of 'Christians,' and all the coloured races are 'black property' or 'creatures.' They being the chosen people of God, the heathen are given to them for an inheritance, and they are the rod of Divine vengeance on the heathen, as were the Jews of old." In other words they have been the victims of a hard, cold, and cruel theology, governed by an ignorant tyranny of isolated texts of Scripture which, as Dean Farrar says, has "ever been the curse of Christian truth, the glory of narrow intellects, and the cause of the worst errors of the worst days of the corrupted church. Tyranny has engraved texts upon her sword; oppression has carved texts upon her fetters; cruelty has tied texts around her faggots; ignorance has set knowledge at defiance with texts woven on her flag. Gin-drinking has been defended out of Timothy, and slavery has made a stronghold out of Philemon."

The long wanderings of the Boers in the wilderness, their warfare with savage tribes and dangerous beasts, their hand-to-mouth mode of livelihood, their stormy and adventurous history, developed in them a rugged independence of character and at the same time an unreasonable hatred of laws, taxations, and the ordinary restraints of civilised States. The higher civilisation never offered any attractions to them; their life lay back in the seventeenth century, and they had a contempt for later thoughts and habits. Consequently they were, and are, as a body, destitute of the ordinary rudiments of modern education.

Notwithstanding all this, no one who has dispassionately followed their history can withhold a tribute of admiration to the skill, obstinacy, daring and resource displayed by them in their conquests of the Zulu and Matabele tribes, or in their conflicts with trained British troops, in which they have shown superior marksmanship, marvellous activity, wise forecastings, a perfect knowledge of their country, and an unfailing skill in choosing the best ground for their military operations. It has been well said that "if the Boers could govern a country as well as they can conquer and defend one, the British would have had little reason to complain of Transvaal rule."

At the time of the Great Trek of 1835-6*, when 20,000 disaffected Boers left their farms and settlements and pushed northward and eastward, to escape from the irksome restrictions and conditions placed upon them by the British, they carried with them a hatred to British rule, which grew in intensity, until at the end of sixty years it became the cause of the most disastrous war of modern times. Among those who took part in the strange exodus was a family from Colesberg, and a member of that family was young Paul Kruger, at that time a lad not yet in his teens, whose name as President of the Transvaal Republic will ever stand prominent in the history of South Africa.

The Dutch trekked into the wilderness north of the Orange River, where one section remained, while others journeyed eastward over the ranges and through the passes of the Drakenberg mountains, and finally settled down in Natal, which they proclaimed a Free State, or Republic. There, in 1837, the Zulus, under Dingaan, their great chief, made war on them. After some seven engagements, in which the natives were the victors, the Boers—assisted by Panda, the brother of Dingaan, who had "divided the nation and brought as many of the people with him as he was able, seeking the protection of the Boers against his brother, whom he had thus treacherously abandoned"†—gathered together all the strength they could muster, and under the leadership of Andries Pretorius, "Commandant-General of the Boer Forces," succeeded in inflicting a crushing defeat on Dingaan and his 10,000 followers. This great victory, mainly of "brother against brother, Zulu against Zulu," took place on Sunday, the 16th of December, 1838, a day which has ever since been marked with a red letter in the Boer calendar. When they founded the town of Pietermaritzburg, they built a church in commemoration of the great battle fought and won on "Dingaan's Day."

Dingaan was murdered by his own people, and his half-brother, Panda, became King of Zululand by arrangement with the Boers. Pretorius, who now styled himself "Chief Commandant of all the Burghers of the Right Worshipful Volksraad of the South African Society of Port Natal and Commander-in-chief of the Army," claimed Natal by right of conquest, while the lands to the north of the Tugela were designated as part of the Republic and reserved for the use of the Zulus. This arrangement, however, soon came to an end. When the Boers demanded from Great Britain a formal acknowledgment of their independence, the Home Government "declined to acknowledge the independence of their own subjects," and, in 1842, a British administration was established in Natal under instruction from that Government. Then the majority of the Boers trekked again, and joined the settlers to the west of the Drakenberg ranges and the emigrants between the Vaal and the Orange Rivers. But they were to have no rest for the soles of their feet; their movements gave great dissatisfaction to the British authorities, and in 1847 Sir Harry Smith,‡ Governor of the Cape Colony, extended the

* See page 266.

† "The Past and Future of the Kaffir Races," by Rev. W. C. Holden, 1866.

‡ The towns of Harrismith in the Orange Free State, Ladismith in Cape Colony, and Ladysmith in Natal were named after the popular Governor and his wife.

boundaries of Cape Colony northward to the Orange River, annexed British Kaffraria and placed it under the control of a British resident, and proclaimed the whole of the country between the Orange and Vaal rivers a British possession under the name of "the Orange River Sovereignty." The Boer trekkers, who had spent years of toil, trouble, and hard earned money to escape from the hateful British rule, were, naturally enough, greatly enraged at these proceedings, and, assembling in arms under Andries Pretorius, they marched to Bloemfontein, and demanded the withdrawal of the British officials. This was, of course, refused; war ensued, and at the battle of Bloomplaats, on the 29th of August, 1848, the Boers were defeated. They retired to the north of the Vaal, and the Orange River Sovereignty remained British territory until 1854.

In 1850 the whole of the Bantu population, and especially the Xosa clans, whose territory had been annexed as British Kaffraria, revolted, and for two years our troops were engaged in a harassing and bloody struggle to re-establish British control.* Of these horrible wars the English people soon grew heartily tired, and cried out for their cessation, much to the consternation of the Government. This was the opportunity for Pretorius, who had been outlawed, to return to his people and to take advantage of the occasion to complicate matters by threatening to ally himself with the Basuto Chiefs, and to incite the Boers to revolt unless the British Government would recognise the independence of the Boers beyond the Vaal, and remove the sentence of outlawry against himself. It seemed, at the time, that there was no other way to save the Sovereignty than to yield to these demands, and on the 17th of January, 1852, under the Sand River Convention, the independence of the Boers beyond the Vaal—afterwards to become the famous South African Republic—was formally recognised, and their rights to manage their own affairs was guaranteed under the ratification of two British Commissioners, and confirmed by Her Majesty's Secretary of State.

Sir Harry Smith, whose duty it was to carry this transaction through, was re-called, and Sir George Cathcart arrived on the scene as his successor only to find that the Basuto's under Moshesh, their Great Chief, were making disastrous raids upon the European settlers. Sir George crossed the Orange River with a force of between two thousand and three thousand British troops, and encamped on the borders of the Basuto country, whence he sent an ultimatum to Moshesh demanding the payment of a heavy fine in horses and cattle as compensation for the loss the settlers had sustained. This demand not being complied with, Cathcart and his troops crossed the Caledon and a serious engagement took place, with heavy British losses; in fact, defeat was so narrowly escaped that Cathcart declared the 4,000 head of cattle he had captured was sufficient compensation, and gladly accepted the overtures of peace made by Moshesh. Then he made his report to the Home Government, in which he said that it would be impossible to maintain the Orange River Sovereignty without a large permanent garrison. A Special Commissioner was therefore sent out to arrange for its abandonment to the Boers, and on the 23rd of February, 1854, notwithstanding the opposition of many of the European inhabitants, the Convention of Bloemfontein signed a document by which what was once a part of the British Empire became the Orange Free State, destined thereafter to give endless trouble to those who established it.

In 1854 Sir George Grey, a wise and far-seeing man, became Governor and High Commissioner in Cape Colony, and his administration lasted, with only a brief interval,

* It was while our troops were being conveyed to South Africa in connection with these wars that the transport *Birkenhead* foundered, on February 22nd, 1852. See page 531.

until 1862. "It was Sir George Grey's uphill task," says Mr. Bryden,* "amongst other things, to convince unwilling statesmen in Downing Street that South Africa was in truth a valuable possession, and that the lands beyond the Orange, which had been so eagerly abandoned, were fertile and productive. It was his task to pacify and civilise the Kaffirs; if possible to federate the South African States, and to erect gradually a great British South African Empire, or rather, a great congeries of States owning the supremacy of the Queen." But there were troubles with the Colonial Office into which we cannot enter here. "If the Queen and Sir George Grey, whom she warmly supported," adds Mr. Bryden, "could have had their way in the fifties, South Africa would long since have been consolidated, content, prosperous, and united under the flag of Great Britain."

O'REILLY SAW A CHILD IN THE HOUSE OF A DUTCH FARMER PLAYING WITH SOME PEBBLES.

From 1854 to 1864 the Boers, who had set up four separate Republics, were more or less at strife among themselves, their quarrels culminating at length in civil war. In the latter year, however, the Transvaal Republic became united under one Government, the first President being Mr. Andries Pretorius, and the military head of the Republic Mr. Paul Kruger, Commandant-General.

In 1867 South Africa entered upon an entirely new era in its history. From being the Cinderella of British possessions it suddenly developed into the Wealthy Heiress by the discovery of diamonds in the neighbourhood of the Vaal. It is a curious story. One day a trader and hunter named John O'Reilly saw a child in the house of a Dutch

* "The Victorian Era in South Africa, 1837-1897."—By H. A. Bryden.

farmer, of Hopetoun, playing with some pebbles from the Orange River, which had been given to him by a Bushman boy. Struck by the beauty of one of them, O'Reilly examined it carefully, and, convinced that it was no ordinary stone, asked permission to take it away. There was living at that time at Graham's Town a scientist, Dr. Atherstone, who, without hesitation, pronounced the pebble to be a valuable diamond, and hinted that where that came from others were likely to be found. The pebble was sold to Sir Philip Wodehouse, the Governor and High Commissioner, for the sum of £500. O'Reilly went back and searched the banks of the Orange River in vain ; he was almost in despair of making any further discovery, when, in 1869, a Koranna native offered him a magnificent stone, which he purchased for £400. This he afterwards sold in Cape Town for £10,000. It proved to be a diamond weighing in the rough 83½ carats, and 46½ after cutting, and it was sold as the "Star of South Africa" for £25,000. Other discoveries soon followed, and as it always happens that "where the carcase is there will the eagles be gathered together," in a surprisingly short space of time 10,000 diggers made their way to the Orange River. They moved up the Vaal, and in 1870 diamonds in exceptional numbers were found in the dry and desolate country twenty miles south of the river or wet diggings; and so the Dutoitspan, Kimberley, and De Beers Mines sprang into existence. It was the turning point in the history of South Africa ; it brought more settlers to the Orange Republic than it was thought the Boers knew how to manage, and in 1871 therefore, British authority was established over the Diamond Fields ; population increased with wonderful rapidity, property rose in value, new markets were established, trade improved, railways were opened, telegraphs, new roads, irrigation, bridges, and other public works were taken in hand, and the industrial development of South Africa on new lines rapidly progressed. The prosperity of the Diamond Mines has been continuous, the output being from £3,000,000 to £4,000,000 annually.

EARLY DIAMOND DIGGING.

The diamond industry brought to the front Mr. Cecil Rhodes, one of the shrewdest and most practical of men—"the Napoleon of South Africa." He first became an important "factor" in its affairs when he associated himself with the De Beers Diamond Mine. There were at that time about two hundred mining companies, some fifty of which were flooding the market and underselling each other, and he effected the

successful amalgamation of the Kimberley Mines. Then, in 1881, he entered the Cape Legislature, made himself a kind of Dictator of the Diamond Fields; took the lead of the English party at the Cape, and proved that he belonged to an entirely different class of politicians from that with which the Colony had hitherto been familiar, until, in 1890, he became Prime Minister. At that time it was said of him in a London journal: "Mr. Rhodes has the face of a Cæsar, the ambition of a Loyola, and the wealth of a Crœsus. He is the Diamond King, the Cape Premier, and the President of the Chartered Company, which has added the Land of Ophir to the Empire, and he is only thirty-eight!" Of the rest of his acts we shall have more to say by-and-bye, and in the meantime we must go back to resume our summary of history.

In 1873-4 many conflicting interests among the Boers, disunion among the European communities, and, at the back of all, disputes and difficulties with the native tribes, impressed upon Lord Carnarvon, the Secretary for the Colonies, the necessity of making an attempt to unite the Colonies and the Republics in one great Federation—in short to apply as a panacea for the troubles of South Africa the system that had been successfully adopted in the Confederation of Canada. But the Boers were not in a sufficiently tranquil state to discuss so big a scheme. They had a grievance on hand which was briefly this:—British authority had been established over the lucrative Diamond Fields in 1871, and British Sovereignty had been extended over Griqualand West when offered by the chieftain, Waterboer. This brought the Imperial Government into conflict with both the Republics. The Orange Free State disputed the title to this valuable territory, and claimed that the Diamond Fields belonged to them, while the Transvaal Republic maintained that certain rights of the State in adjacent lands was also infringed, and that the terms of the Sand River Convention had been broken. Mr. Keate, Lieutenant-Governor of Natal, was chosen arbitrator in the Transvaal affair, with the result that Waterboer's country was proclaimed a British Crown Colony, and Griqualand West remained a Crown Colony until 1880, when it was handed over by the Imperial Government to Cape Colony. The Orange Free State protested against the Keate award, and President Brand, who had succeeded Pretorius, came to England to lay his grievances before the Home Government. He was met, after some discussion, by the offer of £90,000 in settlement of any claim which the Orange Free State might think it had possessed to the disputed territory. This offer was accepted and so far the matter ended.

In furtherance of Lord Carnarvon's views of Federation, Mr. James Anthony Froude, the historian, was sent out to create an interest in the scheme, and to make any arrangements for carrying it into effect that were possible. But his mission failed, and in the meantime serious difficulties had arisen between the Boers and a neighbouring potentate, Sekukuni, the Bapedi Chief, and Cetewayo, the powerful Zulu King, who had succeeded his father, King Panda, after his death in 1872. "It was known that Sekukuni was Cetewayo's 'dog,' and it was believed that the destruction of the Boers by Cetewayo would be the prelude to a general rising of the Bantu tribes throughout South Africa."

A conflict between the Boers and Sekukuni ended in the defeat of the former, who were obliged to withdraw their commandos from the field, and to abandon large portions of Transvaal territory. This defeat inspired Cetewayo to set in motion the plan he had long meditated of wiping off the face of the earth the whole of the Boers, against whom

he and his people entertained the strongest antipathy. He stood at the head of the Zulu nation, remarkable for its prowess, and with a highly-trained and well-drilled army, amply supplied with arms and ammunition, and panting to avenge itself on the European intruders. In addition to this impending conflict, "the Transvaal Republic was bankrupt and helpless, distracted by internal quarrels, unable to collect any taxes, apparently unable to defend itself against its Kaffir enemies, and likely to be the cause of native troubles which might probably spread till they affected all Europeans in South Africa.'*

In this condition of affairs the Imperial Government determined, "for the peace and welfare of South Africa," to enter the Transvaal and take possession of the country. Sir Theophilus Shepstone was sent out to Pretoria, charged with authority, in case the situation should justify it, to declare the Republic a portion of the dominions of Great Britain. Sir Theophilus was well received by the Boers, and proceeded to make his inquiries. He interviewed the principal burghers, ascertained their views, and convinced himself that the country was in a deplorable condition, financially and politically, and was totally unable to defend itself from any well organised attack of the Zulus. Then, acting under the impression that the Boers were not only willing but anxious to accept English authority and protection, on the 11th of April, 1877 he read in the market place of Pretoria the British Proclamation of Annexation, and the territories of the South African Republic passed peacefully into the possession of the Queen's Government.†

With the majority of the Boers the annexation was for a time popular, but some of them, when they came to realise that the country "for which they and their fathers had trekked so far and fought so often had passed from them," began to enter protests and raise dissensions. The chief agitator was Mr. Paul Kruger, who, with Dr. Jorissen, proceeded to England to lay their complaints before the Imperial Government, to utter their protests, and to obtain if possible a reversal of the annexation. In this they failed, as they did again in 1878, when Kruger, Joubert, and Bok went to London on a similar errand.‡

Lord Carnarvon's second South African Bill had in the meantime been passed, and Sir Bartle Frere had been appointed Governor and High Commissioner. He arrived at Cape Town to find that the Transvaal had been annexed, and that the country was in a very critical state. A struggle with Cetewayo was imminent, and Sir Bartle Frere's first duty was to endeavour to settle a boundary dispute existing between the Boers and the Zulu King. The Commissioners appointed to investigate the matter gave in their award against the Dutch claims and in favour of the Zulus, and Sir Henry Bulwer, the Governor of Natal, was of opinion that this award, honestly accepted, would have allayed the irritation of the Zulus. But before it could be carried into effect, it was necessary that it should be ratified by the High Commissioner, Sir Bartle Frere, who, however, fettered it with formidable conditions that the brave and high-spirited Cetewayo could not under any circumstances accept. They were, that the Zulu army should be disbanded, the effect of which would be that the great chieftain would be utterly helpless in the hands of the British and his old and inveterate enemies the Boers; that he should

* "Impressions of South Africa," by James Bryce.

† Mr. Rider Haggard, the well-known novelist, was at that time secretary to Sir Theophilus Shepstone, and had the honour, with another English officer, of hoisting the Union Jack on this unique occasion.

‡ "It is more than conceivable that highly-cultured men like Lord Carnarvon and Sir Michael Hicks-Beach could scarcely dream of any serious trouble with men of the type of Kruger and Joubert, rough farmers, absolutely devoid of modern education, who had spent all their lives in the African wilderness, warring with savage tribes and wild animals, and tending their flocks and herds, and whose outward appearance was on a par with that of the plainest peasant of North Europe."—H. A. Bryden.

receive a British Resident; give protection to missionaries; pay certain fines for irregularities committed by his subjects, and give guarantees for the better government of his people in the future. These conditions were thrown into the form of an ultimatum, and Cetewayo was given thirty days to decide. As no reply came from the Zulu King, Lord Chelmsford was appointed to the command of the British troops, and on the 12th of January, 1879—the very day on which the time allowed for the acceptance of the ultimatum expired—the Tugela, the boundary between Natal and Zululand, was crossed.

Three columns advanced into Zululand, and the invasion was directed towards Ulundi, the Zulu capital; Colonel (afterwards Sir) Evelyn Wood moved from the Transvaal, Colonel Glynn crossed the river at Rorke's Drift, and Colonel Pearson entered the country by the Lower Tugela, near the sea. Although Lord Chelmsford had received full information of the great strength of the Zulu army, of their peculiar methods of warfare, of their brave and reckless daring, and their proved capacity in battle, he foolishly underrated their strength and valour, and even doubted whether they would show fight at all. His mistake was a disastrously fatal one. On the morning of the 22nd of January, 1879, he moved out of his camp at Isandlhwana, leaving it open and unprotected, the waggons not laagered, and no defences thrown up, and protected by only about 700 English troops, and about the same number of loyal natives. Towards mid-day a Zulu army of from 20,000 to 25,000 men began to surround the unprepared camp at Isandlhwana. They "extended their flanks for three miles on each side, and gradually closed in upon our men, who stood back to back and fired until the guns they held blistered their hands. Some who were near the spruits dipped their rifles into the water to cool them. They had seventy rounds of ammunition each man; as long as this lasted they kept the Zulus at bay. The enemy fell by hundreds at every volley, but still came on like wave succeeding wave, and 'dashed against the few white troops as the breaking of the sea against a rock.' Then, when the ammunition was exhausted, came the last order, 'Fix bayonets, men, and die like English soldiers!' Fearful was that last struggle; gallantly they fought, as only British soldiers can fight; and nobly they died! But it was a massacre, one of the most ghastly that had ever happened. The Zulus bore down upon our men by thousands, and with the assegai completely overwhelmed and slaughtered them where they stood, with the exception of a few mounted men, who managed to escape and swim the river. And so perished nearly 1,000 of our brave English soldiers, and over 500 of our native allies!"*

When Lord Chelmsford, who was only a dozen miles off, and is reported to have heard the firing and been aware that something serious was happening, returned to camp in the evening, he found nothing but blood and confusion—an army dead and mutilated!

On the afternoon of that same day, Lieutenants Chard and Bromhead, who had been left in charge of the Commissiarat Camp and Hospital at Rorke's Drift—a post on the Buffalo between Isandlhwana and Natal—with less than a hundred and fifty men, were startled by the wild shouting of two fugitives across the river, who brought news of the terrible disaster, and warned them of the near approach of an overwhelming force of Zulus on their way to the destruction of defenceless Natal. Instantly preparations were made for defence; they loopholed the houses and constructed barricades with mealie bags. "Calmly but resolutely all the men set to work; the miniature fortification was completed; a wall of biscuit boxes two feet high served as an entrenchment; every man

* Hodder's "Heroes of Britain." Vol. II., page 178.

was instructed in the particular post he was to occupy; and at the end of a couple of hours swarms of Zulus, their hands red with the blood of their conquered enemies, pushed forward from the south, and dashed towards that apparently weak little company in overwhelming numbers. But their onslaught was arrested by a heavy and well-directed fire. Again and again the Zulus rushed forward, and again they had to fall back. Then some took to cover, while others swept round to the rear; but from every point they occupied they were, after desperate struggles, repulsed. Maddened at this failure after their recent victory, they banded together in vast numbers, and moved up so closely as to touch the muzzles of the guns of the besieged. Then came a hand-to-hand encounter—bayonet and assegai. For a time the gallant defenders were forced to retire behind their biscuit boxes; then the hospital was set on fire by the foe, and the critical moment of the struggle came. But all were equal to it; room after room was defended—the sick who were able to stand took part in the desperate defence, and in the midst of the deadly strife a redoubt made of mealie bags was constructed, giving a second line of fire all round.

"All through that evening and all through that night the gallant little band of 139 men kept at bay 3,000 Zulus, and at four in the morning the foe gave up the contest, having lost more than three times the number of the besieged. When they were strengthening their position to resist further conflict, Lord Chelmsford arrived upon the scene, and learned the story of the most gallant defence of modern times. Although he only gave very scant meed of praise in the common-place words, "Thank you all very much for your very gallant defence," when the news reached England the voice of the whole nation rang out their nobly-earned praise, and it was felt that the war was not unmingled disaster and disgrace with this one luminous episode in it." *

The magnificent defence of Chard and Bromhead averted from Natal the sure destruction that awaited it, and never was the Victoria Cross more heroically won than by those two brave and competent men.

Lord Chelmsford, deprived of his supplies, hurried back from these scenes of fearful slaughter to the frontier, where, owing to the rise of the Tugela and other causes, he remained until June. In the meantime, Colonel Evelyn Wood, to the west, had been able to hold his own at Kambula, and Colonel Pearson, after a successful battle, had taken, and was still holding, a strong position at Ekowe. At Kambula the Zulus, 10,000 strong, had recklessly attacked Colonel Wood's camp, which was effectively fortified and laagared, and after a desperate and long-sustained defence the Zulus were finally beaten off with tremendous loss, although Colonel Wood had with him only 1,700 regular troops, some Transvaal farmers, and 350 natives. It was one of the most brilliant victories in South Africa.†

Although after his successful battle Colonel Pearson had occupied and held Ekowe, his troops were cut off from all outside communication, except by means of heliographic signals, and for a time the chief interest in the war was centered upon the beleaguered garrison. Lord Chelmsford stolidly refused to advance to the rescue until he should be fully reinforced, and it was not until the end of March that a body of 6,000 men gallantly made their way through masses of assailants and finally rescued the garrison.

* Hodder's "Heroes of Britain." Vol. II., page 178.

† On the day before the battle of Kambula Hill was fought, a small but desperate engagement took place on Zlobani Mountain, when a British patrol was attacked by a strong Zulu force. But for the splendid courage and resource of Major Redvers Buller, who gained the Victoria Cross that day, the British would have been cut off and overwhelmed.

In June Lord Chelmsford made his second advance into the country with an army numbering in its three divisions 24,000 men. On the 4th of July the battle of Ulundi was fought, and a crushing defeat was inflicted on Cetewayo, whose brave warriors fell in thousands under the murderous British fire. The battle was completely in favour of the English, who then occupied and burnt Ulandi, the Zulu capital, from which its King had fled.

Lord Chelmsford, whose conduct of affairs had been severely criticised at home, was recalled, and Sir Garnet Wolseley was appointed in his place. Sir Bartle Frere, upon whose shoulders many were disposed to lay all the failures and disasters of the campaign, was also recalled, and the control of all South Africa was placed in the hands of Sir Garnet Wolseley. Under his directions Cetewayo was captured and brought a prisoner to Cape Town; Zululand was divided into thirteen districts, each under a separate chief; "the military system was destroyed; the people were disarmed, and no importation of arms allowed: a Resident was to decide disputes in which British subjects were involved; but the reception and protection of missionaries against the will of the people was not insisted upon." After the settlement of Zululand, Sir Garnet went north into the Transvaal to subdue the Bapedi chief, Sekukuni. His stronghold was stormed by Col. Baker-Russell, and the subjugation of the Bantu was complete.

One incident of the war was exceptionally painful. With a desire to fight under the British flag, to show his gratitude for English hospitality, and at the same time to appear in the eyes of the French people as a dashing and brilliant young soldier, and for other personal and political motives, the young Prince Imperial of France, Louis Napoleon, became a volunteer on Lord Chelmsford's staff. Through want of caution in reconnoitring the country he was surprised by Zulus, attacked, and cruelly killed. The news created a great shock in England, and called out intense sympathy for the bereaved mother, the Empress Eugénie.*

Unhappily the Zulu War was little more than an episode in the grave questions that agitated South Africa.

With the relief afforded to the Boers by the destruction of the Zulu power came the desire to regain their independence, and a vigorous agitation commenced, which was much strengthened by the fact that Mr. Gladstone in his notable Midlothian speeches had repeatedly condemned the policy that had been pursued in South Africa, and especially in the Transvaal, describing it as "the invasion of a free people," and otherwise giving encouragement to the Boer movement for independence. When, however, Mr. Gladstone became Premier in 1880 he was waited upon by a third delegation, consisting of Kruger, Joubert, and others, to whom, in reply to their petition, he gave the astounding information that, "looking to all the circumstances, both of the Transvaal and the rest of South Africa, and to the necessity of preventing a renewal of disorders which might lead to disastrous consequences, not only to the Transvaal, but to the whole of South Africa, our judgment is that the Queen cannot be advised to relinquish her sovereignty over the Transvaal!"

When the delegates returned to South Africa, and told the story of Mr. Gladstone's marvellous change of front, the determination was soon made to work out a scheme that

* "Hardly has any history a tale more tragic than hers. So sudden and splendid an elevation, so brilliant a career, so complete a fall, such an accumulation of sorrow, is hardly equalled even in the story of Marie Antoinette. Now, in the autumn of life, she was left absolutely alone. Youth, beauty, Imperial throne, husband, son, all were gone!" McCarthy's "History of Our Own Times." Vol. iv. p. 278.

should bring back to them their independence. At a meeting held at Paardekraal (now Krugersdorp) on the 13th of December, a triumvirate, composed of Kruger, Joubert, and Pretorius, was appointed to carry such scheme into effect. Three days later, December 16th, Dingaan's Day—the anniversary of the Boers' great victory over the Zulus in 1838—the Republican flag was raised at Heidelberg, a town about sixty miles distant from Pretoria, and a proclamation was issued. At the same time a letter was sent to Sir Owen Lanyon, the British Resident at Pretoria, offering him forty-eight hours in which to decide whether he would recognise the Republican flag.

MAJUBA HILL.

Long before that time expired the Boer War had commenced. A small British force under Colonel Anstruther—264 men of the 94th regiment and a baggage train—were marching from Middleburg to Pretoria, unaware of the rising, when they were met at Bronkhorst Spruit, some forty miles from the capital, by a large party of well-armed Boers. Colonel Anstruther, according to one account—for the story is variously told—was handed a letter signed by Joubert, ordering him to halt where he was until a reply should be received from Sir Owen Lanyon. Disregarding the warning that if he moved beyond a small stream indicated it would be understood to be a declaration of war, Colonel Anstruther ordered his men to advance. The Boers, from rocks and under cover, immediately opened fire, and within a quarter of an hour the incautious Colonel and fifty of his men were killed, and seven officers and ninety-one men wounded. A few days later Pretoria and other towns were closely invested by the Dutch farmers.

Sir George Colley, the Governor of Natal, promptly advanced to the relief of the British garrisons in the Transvaal with a small force of about a thousand men, but all that he had at his disposal. The Boers were however before him, and, when he came up to Laing's Nek, which dominates the principal road from the Transvaal to Natal, he found that they were already in possession of this coign of vantage. On the 28th January, 1881, Sir George attempted to force the pass, but the Boers outnumbered him by two to one, and, moreover, had entrenched themselves with their usual skill and foresight in unassailable positions, where they were able to pick off their foes without danger to themselves. The British charged pluckily up the hill, but their case was hopeless from the first: they were repulsed with heavy loss. Instead of waiting for reinforcements, which were on the way under Sir Evelyn Wood, Colley then, on February 8th, attempted a reconnaissance towards Newcastle. He was surrounded by the insurgents near the Ingogo River, was speedily repulsed, and 200 dead and wounded, out of the 300 engaged in the conflict, were left upon the field. Smarting under disaster upon disaster, and desperate to wipe out defeat and failure at all hazards, Sir George Colley, on the evening of the 26th of February, left his camp with 600 men, and, under cover of darkness, laboriously climbed through the long weary hours of the night the rugged heights of Majuba Hill. Arrived at its flat top, 2,000 feet above the level, he found himself in a position commanding the whole of the Boers' encampment at Laing's Nek. When, to their intense astonishment, the Transvaal forces saw the British on the summit of the mountain they were, on the spur of the moment, about to "trek," but, as no artillery interfered with them, they altered their minds, and determined to attack the British. In a marvellous manner they climbed the hill, dodged in and out between the ill-directed fire of the foe, took advantage of their recklessly exposed position, and reached the crest almost without a casualty. The British were completely routed. Sir George Colley, happily for himself perhaps, was shot through the head; 92 officers and men were killed, 134 were wounded, and 57 taken prisoners. The disaster at Maiwand, in Afghanistan, was more than rivalled by that of Majuba Hill!

In England the news of these military disasters was received with something like dismay, but Sir Evelyn Wood was advancing with 13,000 men, 10,000 more were on the way under Sir Frederick (afterwards Lord) Roberts, who was to take supreme command, and everything pointed to a speedy effacement of the disgrace of these disasters, brought about by ignorance and inefficiency.

Then, just at the most critical moment, the Liberal Government under Mr. Gladstone, which through the mouth of Lord Kimberley had so recently said that "under no circumstances whatever can the Queen's authority in the Transvaal be relinquished," suddenly resolved to give back to the Boers their independence; "resolved to abandon the loyal subjects of the Queen, Dutch, Native, and English, who had heard the Queen's representative say that so long as the streams flowed seawards and the sun ran its course in the heavens, the Queen's authority would there remain established; resolved to yield to force of arms the boon which two successive Governments had thrice refused to the prayers of peaceful delegates; resolved in the face of a resistance altogether more powerful and widespread than they had ever anticipated, to postpone until a more convenient season the settlement of the question whether the Boer or the Englishman was to be master in South Africa."*

Of the terms of the Convention for the Settlement of the Transvaal Territory—generally known as "The Convention of 1881"—or of the London Convention of 1884,

* "The History of South Africa." By W. Basil Worsford.

which superseded it, and changed the name of the Republic from the "Transvaal State" to the much wider and more significant one of "South African Republic," we shall not write in detail, nor shall we attempt to describe the complicated events that followed. It will be sufficient for our present purpose to notify only a few leading facts.

In 1883, Mr. Kruger (Oom Paul) was elected President of the South African Republic, an office he retained for many years.

As in 1871 the discovery of diamonds gave an enormous impetus to the industrial life of South Africa, the influx of immigration, and the opening up of the country, so again in 1883 the discovery of gold in Barberton Fields, to the east of the Transvaal, introduced new elements into the life of the country. It had long been known that gold existed in the Transvaal, it was now to be demonstrated that South Africa was the greatest gold-producing country in the world. The famous Sheba Mines were discovered in 1886, and almost at the same time the rich conglomerate beds of

JOHANNESBURG IN 1889.

Witwatersrandt yielded some of their apparently inexhaustible supply. There was at once a rush to the gold fields; wealth poured into the country as it had never done before; the finances of the South African Republic were revolutionised; in all parts new enterprises were inaugurated; new towns and cities sprang into existence with a rapidity unequalled even by America, and population increased by leaps and bounds. Johannesburg, the central city of the gold-mining district, "sprang from the veldt like the palace of Aladdin," its area occupying four square miles, and its length of streets 130 miles. Soon gas mains were laid, electric light introduced, water supply established, parks and open spaces provided, and in an incredibly short space of time, noble buildings, excellent shops, plentiful tramway lines, tasteful dwellings, and all the paraphernalia of a modern progressive city came into vogue. The population rose to 80,000; the gold industry was established on so firm a basis that year after year the output was estimated at not less than £8,000,000 value annually.

So the years went on, with progress in everything and everywhere—except in one direction. The Boers, although reaping enormous financial benefit from the influx of miners, traders and others, deprecated their intrusion into the country, and were suspicious of their influence, seeing that they far outnumbered themselves. Naturally enough these "Outlanders," as they came to be called, and especially the British residents, were anxious

to have some small share in the government of the country in which their lot was cast, and which they had brought to such great prosperity, but the Boers, with their deep-rooted antipathy to Outlanders in general and Britishers in particular, determined that they should remain as aliens without any political rights. In course of time substantial grievances arose; the Outlanders were disproportionately taxed; public offices were filled only by prejudiced Hollanders; the Dutch language only was tolerated; no voice in the management of public, as apart from political, affairs was allowed to nine-tenths of the tax-payers; no Outlander could serve on a jury, although liable to be tried before a Boer jury who were often entirely in ignorance of the language spoken by the accused.

One of the first questions of grievance therefore to take definite form was that of naturalisation. It was beset with difficulties even in 1882, the difficulties multiplied year after year by modifications and alterations of the law, and the question became at length

JOHANNESBURG IN 1898.

one of the main causes that brought about the great tragedy of 1899-1900. The Boers determined to keep all power in their own hands, to make the franchise practically impossible for British subjects, and to resist all attempts at improvement in their narrow-minded laws and customs.

Meanwhile a "scramble for Africa" was in progress, and fears were entertained that Germany might enter on both sides of the Continent and meet in the valley of the Zambesi, and thus prevent the British Colonies from further expansion to the north. "Hence came about the two great Chartered Companies. The 'British South Africa Company' incorporated in 1889, of which Mr. Rhodes has always been the leading spirit, seized Matabeleland and Mashonaland after a short war with the Matabeles, a warlike Zulu race who were formerly dominant in the regions inland from the Transvaal, and the Mozambique. The 'British Central Africa Company' operated further to the north, and occupied the regions beyond the Zambesi and to the west of the great lake Nyassa.

Their sphere of influence was put under formal British protection in 1891. Thus the southern end of Mr. Rhodes's great 'Cape Town to Cario' scheme was successfully put beyond the danger of German or Portuguese interference."*

In 1894 Mr. Rhodes had an interview with President Kruger with a view to induce him to enter into a Custom's Union, which would have been greatly advantageous to the whole of South Africa. Mr. Kruger declined point blank, and the interview closed so stormily that Mr. Rhodes determined to have no more to do with the shrewd, but narrow-minded Dutchman. The Outlanders of Johannesburg, however, made up their minds to have much more to do with him. In the same year 13,000 of them presented to the Raad a petition for the acknowledgment of what they conceived to be their rights. It was rejected "with contemptuous laughter and cheers." A further petition was sent in a year later signed by 38,000 inhabitants, and met with a similar fate. Then large numbers of the Outlanders came to the conclusion that redress of wrong by constitutional means was out of the question.

In December, 1895, they entered into a league and formulated their demands, which were not extravagant. They asked for the right to vote for the equal use of English and Dutch in schools and in official documents, and for a less expensive administration. These demands were not conceded, and many of the Outlanders determined to support their claims by force of arms. They put themselves in communication with Mr. Rhodes, and the "Gold Fields of South Africa Company's" office in Johannesburg was utilised as an arsenal for the collection of arms, and the drafts for the payment of current expenses were drawn on the Cape Premier. It is not quite clear to what these movements tended, but it was supposed that they comprehended the taking possession of Johannesburg, seizing Pretoria, the arsenal, and even Kruger himself, and then making an appeal to the vote of all South Africa. What is certain is that the arrangements were very incomplete, and were conceived in the spirit that in former times had proved so fatal, of underrating the intelligence, the pluck, and the infinite resources of the Boers.

Elsewhere the plot was thickening, the details of which may best be given in the words of Mr. Bryden. "Mr. Rhodes brought down Dr. Jameson," the administrator of the territories of the Chartered Company, "Sir John Willoughby, and other officers from Rhodesia, with a body of the Chartered Company's Police, which was stationed at Pitsani, near Mafeking, in British Bechuanaland, just upon the Transvaal border. These men, with horses, Maxims, guns and equipments, were got down ostensibly to guard the railway being built through the Protectorate. A body of troopers from the lately disbanded Bechuanaland Border Police, and other recruits, were added, and the force then numbered some five or six hundred men.

"As soon as the Johannesburgers were ready, Jameson was to move with his force and make a dash into the Transvaal. At the last moment a hitch occurred, and the Reform Committee declared themselves unprepared for the final plunge. Meanwhile that acute old campaigner, President Kruger, began to scent danger and to prepare accordingly. Jameson grew impatient, and finally, on the evening of the 29th December, 1895 . . . . . entered the Transvaal, taking with his column of some 520 mounted men, three Maxims, one twelve-and-a-half pounder and two seven pounders. Colonel Sir John Willoughby, of the Royal Horse Guards, who had been long connected with Rhodesia, was in military command. The column rode for two

* "England in the Nineteenth Century." By C. W. Oman, 1899.

days till it neared Krugersdorp, not far from Johannesburg. Here it was met by a force of Boers, who had been meanwhile gathering in their swift fashion, and, after a long skirmishing fight, extending over a portion of two days, was at last hemmed in and forced to surrender at Doornkop. Jameson had lost 26 killed and a number wounded; the Boers some two or three killed and five wounded. In Johannesburg counsels were divided, the revolutionary party had little backbone or cohesion, and, after the issue of a Proclamation by the High Commissioner against the adoption of forcible measures, the crowds which had gathered dispersed, and the rising was at an end."

Jameson's Raid, although it was eulogised by the poet-laureate, Mr. Alfred Austin, and certain newspapers, was, nevertheless, a miserable tragedy, an astounding fiasco, an unjustifiable act, and a piece of reckless folly. Jameson and his lawless band were

AT THE BATTLE OF KRUGERSDORP.

promptly handed over to the British Government, were tried in England under the Foreign Enlistment Act, and sentenced to various terms of imprisonment with, in the case of some of the army officers, forfeiture of their commissions; while the Johannesburg conspirators were fined in exceedingly heavy amounts and imprisoned. But these punishments did not wipe out the evil that had been done. Mr. Rhodes resigned the Premiership of the Cape Ministry, and retired for a long time into comparative obscurity, being succeeded by Sir Gordon Sprigg; the German Emperor rashly telegraphed his congratulations to Mr. Kruger, and but for the instant mobilisation of part of the army by the British Government his interference would probably have led to war; and worst of all, our relations with the Transvaal were rendered more difficult than they had ever been before. From that time the rancorous feeling between the Dutch and the English became more and more embittered until it culminated in one of the most awful tragedies of the century—the Boer War of 1900.

CHAPTER L.

THE MARCH OF EVENTS.

1875-1900.

TRADES-UNIONS were regarded in the earlier half of the century with profound aversion by nearly all the employing and capitalist classes, and the high ground was taken that they were opposed to morality no less than to sound principles of political economy. By degrees they came to be tolerated, then sanctioned, and afterwards encouraged. Many of them started in the form of Friendly or Benefit Societies, and this was the idea that spread among all the organisations of the working classes. Strikes or lock-outs did not form any part of the original intention of these institutions, but when a trade society became defined as "a combination of workmen to enable each to secure the conditions most favourable to labour," and this expanded into an organisation "to regulate the prices and the hours of labour," and in many cases the number of men to be employed and apprentices to be bound, then the Friendly and Benefit Societies became Trades-unions pure and simple, and the chief object of their funds was declared to be "to enable the men to resist, by strikes and otherwise, such action on the part of the employers as would tend to lower the rate of wages or lengthen the hours of labour."

When the working men found that these combinations gave them a giant's strength, at first they used it tyrannously like a giant, and many outrages occurred which brought Trades-unionism into very evil repute. In 1875, however, legislative measures placed masters and workmen on an absolute equality as regarded all matters of contract, and established the principle that the right of a combination was identical with the right of an individual. It gave a body of workmen, therefore, a right to "strike" if they saw fit to do so, as it gave the employer a right to "lock them out" if he felt himself aggrieved; it established the principle that "no combination of persons is to be deemed criminal if the act proposed to be done would not be criminal when done by one person," while, at the same time, it safe-guarded, as far as possible, the interests of the public by passing special enactments in reference to cases where breach of contract would involve serious injury or even danger to life and property.

The period we have under consideration (1875-1900) was remarkable for the frequency of great strikes, and for the amount of public anxiety they occasioned. Twelve thousand colliers in Northumberland struck in May, 1877, against a proposed reduction in wages, and left their work. In 1881 forty thousand colliers in Lancashire struck in consequence of the alleged demand by the masters that the men should contract themselves out of the Employers' Liability Act, and accept a system of insurance instead. In March, 1890, a strike of colliers, directly affecting about 350,000 men, was commenced in the Midlands, the object being to obtain an immediate increase of five per cent in wages, and a further rise of five per cent in July ensuing, on the ground that their rise of wages had not kept pace with the rise in the price of coal. As the affected districts yielded half of the total output of coal in the United Kingdom there

was a great outcry, and coals suddenly went up to fabulous prices. The matter was settled by the Federation of Colliery Owners, who decided in favour of conceding the demands of the workmen.

It would be tedious to tell the story of great strikes in detail; they affected, at one time or another, almost everybody in every branch of trade, and public interest or public anger was excited on behalf of Lancashire cotton operatives, the Black Country iron-workers, the railway employees, the drivers of cabs and omnibuses, and the cobblers and shoemakers of Northamptonshire. So far and wide did the spirit of striking extend, that in October, 1889, there were strikes in several of our large towns by schoolboys who demanded shorter hours, half-holidays on Wednesdays, no caning, and no home-work!

MEN ON STRIKE.

One of the most important strikes of the century was that of the dock labourers in August, 1889, when the shipping trade of the port and docks of London was brought to an absolute standstill. A hundred thousand men were "out," and a fund was raised to give them the barest necessaries of life while they fought out their grievances. This fund amounted to £48,736, of which £30,424 was subscribed by the Labour Associations of the Australian Colonies. Eventually the dispute was settled, Lord Brassey being umpire, in favour of the men. It was the first serious combination by unskilled labourers, and it resulted in inciting others of the same class to follow in their steps. This great dock strike brought to the front Mr. Ben Tillett, Mr. John Burns, and

Mr. Tom Mann, and gave a strong impetus not only to Trades-unionism but also to Socialism. On the 1st of May in the following year (1890) "Labour Day" was instituted, when demonstrations took place in London and in most of the other European capitals, the chief object of the demonstrators being to urge the justice of an eight-hours' day by legislative measures.

One notable characteristic of the later years of the century has been a craving, a passion, for extraordinary feats and beating records, or "going one better." On the 28th of June, 1875, Captain Boyton started from Cape Grisnez at 3-0 in the morning in a new life-saving dress, and walked ashore at Faro Bay, in Kent, at 2-0 a.m. on the following day. For twenty-three hours he had battled with the waves, supported only by three modest meals of strong green tea and beef sandwiches. Three months later, Captain Webb left the Admiralty Pier, at Dover, at 1-0 p.m., attended by a lugger and two rowing-boats, and swam across the Channel, arriving at the west side of Calais harbour at 10-30 a.m. the next day, having accomplished his arduous task in less than 21¾ hours, without touching a boat on his way, and without taking a particle of solid food, his refreshments consisting of brandy, beef-tea, and coffee. The conditions were not identical, but he had "gone one better" than Boyton. Later, Boyton crossed the Straits of Messina in a violent storm, during which it was alleged he was attacked by sharks, but he escaped destruction. Later still (1885), Captain Webb attempted to swim the Niagara Rapids and was drowned, his body being found in the Niagara River at Lewiston, seven miles below the Falls.

On Sunday, March 15th, 1876, a little before midnight, an American, Edward Payson Weston, started to walk on a track in the Agricultural Hall, at Islington, 500 miles in six consecutive days. On the following Saturday night, at ten minutes to twelve, he was still struggling on, when the signal was given to stop. He had just concluded his 450th mile. In the following year a man named William Gale completed the extraordinary feat of walking 1,500 miles in 1,000 hours, at Lillie Bridge, West Brompton.* Then Weston tried again, and attempted to cover 2,000 miles in 1,000 hours, taking weather and roads as might chance to happen. He would in all probability have accomplished his task successfully had it not been for the warmth of a reception he met with at Windsor, which excited and unnerved him, and so caused him to faii by only 22½ miles. Two years later the man Gale undertook to walk 2,500 miles in 1,000 hours, at Lillie Bridge, but failed to do that distance by about 95 miles.

So the competitions went on, not in swimming and pedestrianism only, but in every kind of feat of endurance from the contests of "strong men," such as those of men known as Sampson and Sandow, for the title of "strongest man on earth," to the performances of an Italian named Succi, who in April, 1890, concluded a fast of 40 days at a place of entertainment in London. A few months later a man named Jacques concluded at the same place a fast which had lasted for 42 days, and was so little exhausted that when his time was up he carried round the stage a man on his back who weighed no less than 14 stone!

Extraordinary feats in bicycling, apart from record breaking on the tracks, have been eagerly followed. Perhaps the most notable was that of Mr. Thomas Stevens, who started from Francisco in April, 1884, and went across the States, thence to Europe,

*In January, 1879, an Englishwoman named Anderson undertook for a wager to walk 2,700 quarter miles in as many quarter hours, and successfully accomplished her task, having been sustained in it by copious supplies of port wine, pork pies, and lobsters!

traversing the Continent, and through Asia Minor to Teheran and on to China, by way of Meshed, Astrabad, Lahore, and Calcutta, where, owing to the hostility of the natives, he had to abandon his bicycle, on which he had ridden without any serious accident, but with many adventures, a distance of 12,000 miles!

Among popular hobbies, social manias, and social trifles that marked the life of the last half of the century, may be mentioned the introduction of spelling competitions, known as Spelling Bees; rinking, or skating on roller skates; the collection of china; Estheticism, and the worship of the Sun Flower; the South Kensington Exhibitions—Colonial, Fisheries, Health, Inventions, and more popular than all, the Naval Exhibition at Chelsea, and the Electrical Exhibition at the Crystal Palace. One of the most curious and most continuous of modern hobbies has been the collecting mania, supposed by the learned to be a survival of the mediæval passion for religious relics. Autographs, coins, buttons, either ordinary or special, as the buttons of officers of every regiment and department of the British Army, and, most curious of all, postage stamps have in turn had their devotees. It has been claimed that stamp collecting has become a national pastime: certain it is that boys at school no less than princes and merchants dabble in postage stamps as others do in stocks and shares; it has been the means of developing new branches of trade, has a literature of its own,* and commands a rising and falling market. For example, a penny stamp issued in Mauritius in 1847 was in 1900 worth £1,000. In 1900, a magistrate of Brighton sold his collection of European stamps for the almost incredible sum of £30,000, and the collection which the late Mr. Tapling, M.P., left to the British Museum is now valued at considerably over £100,000. There are hundreds of stamp dealers in the metropolis and the chief provincial towns, who have their agents for obtaining supplies of new issues in every stamp-issuing State of the world. In the Strand, one of the most expensive thoroughfares of London, there are three shops devoted exclusively to the stamp trade, and one of the firms publishes stamp albums for which it has an average sale of 40,000 a year.

One craze that had a short but merry life was known as the Missing-Word Competition. In a certain weekly journal a paragraph was printed with one word omitted. Any purchaser of the paper could fill in the missing word and send his guess in together with a shilling postal order. As the successful guessers divided the money thus received the idea soon "caught on," the circulation of the journal went up by the hundred thousand, the demand for shilling postal orders exhausted the supply in the Post Office, half a million shillings being sent in in one week. Many other journals took up the idea, and London was turned into a huge Monte Carlo. At length the National Anti-Gambling League interfered, actions were instituted, missing-word competitions were declared to be illegal, and the £24,000, the money of the last competition in the weekly journal to which we have specially referred, was placed in Chancery.

Of the many trifles that from time to time occupied the thoughts of thousands, nay, millions, of the people, only two shall be cursorily mentioned here. An old African elephant named Jumbo, of enormous size, and of high reputation among children and others who rode upon it in the Zoological Gardens, had shown signs of bad temper, and in 1882 the Council of the Zoological Society sold it to Mr. T. P. Barnum for the sum of £2,000. Responding to the "gush" of certain daily newspapers, all London gave itself up to sickly sentimentality, and rose as one man to plead for the retention of the animal in the gardens. Even Mr. Ruskin, the grave philosopher of Coniston, exerted himself vigorously to avert the fate of Jumbo. Then came a day when he was to leave

*The *Philatelic Record*, edited by Mr. Edward J. Nankivell, already extends to its 23rd vo..

the shores of England, and, absurd as it may appear now, we have it on the authority of a London journalist of that day, that "all London wept" on the melancholy occasion.

The scene of the other trifle is also laid in the Zoological Gardens. On the 23rd of October, 1894, a Boa constrictor swallowed another snake of the same species, only two feet shorter than itself, without suffering any apparent injury. But England waited with feverish anxiety, relieved only by bets and discussions, until the process of digestion was completed.

Shipwrecks and disasters at sea, although capable of being minimised will, of course, never cease to occur. One of the most terrible losses at sea during the last quarter of the century was that of the *Eurydice*, a naval training ship. She was returning from a training cruise in the West Indies, and had passed Ventnor in the Isle of Wight on the 24th of March, 1878, under full sail when, with remarkable suddenness, a terrific gale and snow-storm arose. The snow-storm passed away almost as quickly as it came, but when the outlookers sought for the *Eurydice* she was nowhere to be seen. She had capsized in the squall about 2½ miles off Shanklin, and had gone down, carrying with her nearly 300 souls. Only two persons—a man and a boy—were rescued by a passing schooner. No blame attached to captain, officers, or men of the doomed ship, and it was established that she was not carrying more sail than she was justified in having set, considering the weather which preceded the sudden squall.

Even more terrible in its details was the collision of the North German Lloyd Atlantic liner, the *Elbe*, with another steamer, the *Craithie*, on the night of the 29th of January, 1895. The *Elbe* was sent to the bottom off Lowestoft, and of the 350 persons on board only 20 were saved.

No shipwreck at sea, however terrible the details may have been, ever produced so painful an impression as one that happened on the quiet waters of the river Thames. On the 3rd of September, 1878, the favourite saloon steamer, *Princess Alice*, the property of the London Steamship Company, was returning from Gravesend with a merry crowd of about 800 holiday-makers on board. All went well until the pleasure vessel came to a point known as Beckton Reach, near Woolwich, when suddenly a Tyne screw collier, the *Bywell Castle*, passing out to sea, struck the *Princess Alice* with such fearful violence as to run her down and almost cut her in two. Even before the crash of the collision was realised the vessel was sinking, bow first, and the scene of horror and panic that ensued was indescribable. A few frantically clambered on to the *Bywell Castle* and were saved, but the great mass of the people rushed aft, shrieking and struggling, away from any chance of help. Thus, surrounded by boats, and almost within reach of the shore, at least 700 persons, many of them women and children, perished in the rush and confusion.

Pleasure turned suddenly to pain, and light-hearted joy to intensity of sorrow, never, not even in the case of the *Princess Alice*, received a more terrible illustration than in Paris on the 4th of May, 1897, when a Charitable Bazaar was being held, attended by the flower of the French nobility and aristocracy. Suddenly, almost before there was time to raise the cry of "Fire!" the whole building was in flames; the exits were closed, escape was impossible; within a few minutes the building was burned to the ground, and 139 lives of leaders in fashion, wealth, and art, were lost. Among the victims was the Duchesse d'Alençon, whose tragic death so affected her uncle, the Duc d'Aumale, that he died two days afterwards.

Concerning Frauds, a quaint English writer, Charles Caleb Colton, says :—"The more gross the fraud, the more glibly will it go down, and the more greedily will it be swallowed; since folly will always find faith wherever impostors will find impudence." On the other hand, he adds, "There are some frauds so well conducted that it would be stupidity not to be deceived by them."

The failure of the City of Glasgow Bank in 1878 came as a thunder-clap on the commercial world, and especially upon the shareholders and depositors, as a dividend of twelve per cent. had been declared only three months before. The first pressure of the calamity was somewhat relieved by certain other of the Scottish banks agreeing to accept the current notes of the "City" Bank in the ordinary way of business. Day after day, however, the gigantic nature of the stoppage became better known, and every branch of trade, and almost every commercial enterprise, especially in the West of Scotland, was affected. Several large firms, associated too closely in finance with the Bank, suspended payment, with liabilities estimated at over £3,000,000. After a searching examination into the affairs of the Bank, the accountants reported that it would be unable to continue business. Fresh revelations as to the enormous deficiency—amounting to between six and seven millions sterling—and the flagrant maladministration of the affairs of the Bank, led to the arrest of the manager, secretary, and the Glasgow Board of Directors, who were subsequently committed for trial, and in February, 1879, were found guilty of uttering false balance-sheets, and were sentenced to various terms of imprisonment.

The greatest financial crisis of the century—except, perhaps, that of Black Friday in 1866*—although of a totally different nature to the one we have recorded above, was brought about in November, 1890, by the failure of the great house of Baring Brothers to meet the enormous liability of £22,000,000. The unparalleled disaster of stopping payment which would have involved thousands of innocent investors in ruin, was happily averted by the prompt action of the Governors of the Bank of England, who came to the rescue, and with the aid of other large banks, formed a guarantee fund of £17,000,000, by which means the credit of the house of Baring was saved, but not until the stability of the whole of British finance had been threatened.

One of the most disastrous series of frauds, which played havoc with middle-class investors, and brought ruin into thousands of homes, was committed by the Liberator Building Society, carried on by a set of scoundrels, several of whom made religion their stalking horse. The Society was a gigantic affair, one of the favourite investments of people of moderate means, and when it went crash in the autumn of 1892, the consternation was intense. The Official Receiver reported that a sum variously estimated at from three to four millions had been recklessly squandered, and that hardly anything was left for the unfortunate investors. The misery involved was terrible; hundreds and thousands lost the small savings of a life-time, and not a few lost their reason into the bargain. Jabez Spencer Balfour, M.P. for Burnley, the chief transgressor, fled to Mexico, others of the Directors, Hobbs and Wright, were sentenced to twelve years' imprisonment, and Newman to five years. Mr. Justice Hawkins, in passing sentence, described the course of the prisoners as one of "continuous, deliberate, and systematic fraud." Eventually (January, 1894) Jabez Balfour was arrested at Salta, in the Argentine Republic, but it was not until April, 1895, that, after prolonged negotiations on the question of extradition, he was brought in custody from Buenos Ayres to England.

* See page 541.

On November 28th in that year the great Liberator trial ended, Jabez was convicted as a swindler, and two sentences of seven years, not to run concurrently, were passed upon him amid the cheers of a multitude of his victims, who assembled outside the court. So he made his exit, and so, let us hope, may every "pious" swindler as yet unconvicted.

Of all the coarse and horrible crimes of the last quarter of the century—and perhaps of the whole century—none made so deep an impression of horror, or caused a more intense state of feeling than those known as the Whitechapel Murders. On the 7th of August, 1888, the body of a woman was found in Whitechapel gashed in a terrible manner, and at the inquest a verdict of wilful murder was returned against some person unknown. Within the same month the bodies of two other women—all of the unfortunate class—were found in the same neighbourhood, murdered in the same way, and as in each instance certain organs of the body were abstracted, which required some knowledge of dissection to perform, it was thought by many that the crimes were committed to secure rewards from Anatomical or Pathological scientists—an idea which was indignantly rejected by Sir Risdon Bennett, one of the most eminent medical men of the day. In the following month two more murders of a similar nature occurred, but still no shadow of a clue was obtained of the murderer, who, for lack of a proper name, was designated Jack the Ripper. Theories of motive were freely discussed, suggestions for the employment of bloodhounds to track down the murderer were made, rewards for his capture were offered, but nothing was heard of the mysterious criminal until November the 9th, when a further and even more horrible case of murder and mutilation occurred. A free pardon to accomplices was now offered, but without any satisfactory result. Then some months passed and it was thought that the terrible series of crimes had ceased, but on the 16th of July, 1889, another woman of the same class was found similarly butchered and on the 10th of November, yet another case. Then came another pause, broken, for the last time so far as is known, on the 13th of February, 1891, when one more victim fell. And so it happened that in the capital of the world, in years of highest civilisation, under the very eyes of the ubiquitous police and the still more ubiquitous newspaper reporter, a series of ten horrible murders, committed for the greater part in the open air, was perpetrated in impenetrable secrecy, and their author and his motives remain undiscovered to this day.

We gladly turn now to a totally different class of subjects, to glance at some of the philanthropic movements which have marked the period under review. Philanthropy entered upon a new stage; it had already dealt with sanitary laws, the dwellings of the poor, the provision of suitable elementary education, restriction in the hours of labour, inspection of mines, factories, and shops, and these had all passed from individual effort to important questions of Imperial policy. Then there set in a new style of philanthropy, an endeavour to make the already improved homes more beautiful, to supply social enjoyments that should fill the larger number of hours of leisure, to make life more livable by improving and cultivating the tastes of the people, to provide more domestic and social comforts, and to turn the dreary monotony of unbroken dulness into a life of pleasantness. The erection of the first cab shelter in 1875 marks, to a certain extent, the dawn of this new philanthropy.

The idea of sending the poor little waifs and strays of our great cities for "a day in the country," with whomsoever it originated, was an excellent one; but the idea of establishing "Holiday Homes," where they could drink in fresh air for a week or a

fortnight at a time, and get accustomed to the sights and sounds of country life, was better. The movement took hold of the imagination of the richer dwellers in great cities, and tens of thousands of little pale-faced children are provided for annually in beautiful country places and by the sea-side. A further development of the movement has been the establishment of sea-side and country camps for boys, which has given a great impetus to such useful societies as the Church Lads' Brigade, the Working Lads' Brigade, and other similar institutions.

The preservation of open spaces—"lungs for London" and other large cities—has occupied the attention of philanthropists, and many important societies have been formed for securing and maintaining them; generous bequests and costly gifts have been made

THE PEOPLE'S PALACE, MILE END ROAD.

of public parks, such as Waterlow Park at Highgate, and Brockwell Park at Herne Hill, while the Corporation of London has succeeded in securing for the use of Londoners for ever such delightful open spaces as Burnham Beeches and West Wickham Common.

Playgrounds for children are now to be found close to the densely populated parts of our great cities, and the one at Wavertree in Liverpool, the gift of an anonymous donor, may be regarded as idealistic.

The question of small allotments of land for working men—mainly with the view of checking the depopulation of the rural districts—has been dealt with by the legislature, and has been taken up with enthusiasm in many places, with very beneficial results in the majority of instances.

The new philanthropy may be said to have culminated on the 14th of May, 1887, when Her Majesty the Queen opened the People's Palace at Mile End. Mr. (afterwards Sir) Walter Besant had applied himself to the discovery of a remedy for the deadly dulness and dreariness, the ignorance and the squalid pleasures of the dwellers of

the East End of London, and incorporated his views in a novel entitled "All Sorts and Conditions of Men," in which he drew a picture of an ideal institution for the working-classes. The idea struck home, and the People's Palace at Mile End was the practical realisation of the novelist's dream. It was a bridge to cross the gulf that separated the East from the West in intellectual pleasures, in art, in knowledge, and in the love of the beautiful; and it placed music and painting, literature and science, and good healthy amusement within the reach of the people. The scheme has borne excellent fruit, and to its influence may be traced the rise of popular polytechnic institutions now to be found in all our great cities and their suburbs, for affording opportunities of technical education and rational amusement.

Of late years the early closing movement has made rapid advances; provision has been made for the more comfortable accommodation of women workers in shops and warehouses; establishments unknown in earlier days have been opened for the sale of cheap and wholesome meals; the cost of travel on short distances by tram and omnibus has been lessened; the means of procuring respectable lodgings in "flats" or "sets" have become almost universal; and the craving for intellectual advancement has been satisfied by the institution of Free Libraries.

One of the very best of the many philanthropic institutions, originated during the later part of the century, is the National Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children, founded by the Rev. Benjamin Waugh in 1884. The early work of the Society ("Mr. Waugh is the Society," it has been said) was greatly assisted by men of very diverse views, but of one heart, such as the Cardinal Archbishop of Westminster, and Mr. Labouchere of *Truth*, Mr. Herbert Spencer, and the Chief Rabbi Dr. Addler—and its operations were open to Catholic and Protestant, Jew and Christian, on equal terms. One of its great achievements was to procure the passing of the Act for the Prevention of Cruelty to and the better Protection of Children (52 and 53 Vic. Cap. 44), by which fundamental changes were made in the standing of English children, entitling them, as a civil right, to be clothed, fed, and properly treated; to admission into courts; to limited hours of labour; to new guardianship when that was for their welfare; and to other great benefits never possessed before.*

The Society became "the solicitor, chief constable, and public prosecutor for every child—the smallest and the poorest in the land," and it has been instrumental in affirming and establishing the rights of children in many thousands of cases.

"Dr. Barnardo's Homes" have for many years excited, and still excite, great wonder and admiration. Five thousand orphan waifs are always being maintained, educated, and taught trades there; destitute children of any age, creed, sex, or nationality are eligible to the homes, and also those who are deaf or dumb, blind or crippled; lodging-houses and night refuges, with "ever open doors," are accessible day and night to homeless waifs and strays; technical training in some one of the fourteen handicrafts carried on in the homes is given to every lad capable of receiving it, and girls are carefully trained for domestic service.

Whatever opinion may be held with regard to the religious side of the operations of the Salvation Army, there can hardly be two opinions as to the enormous value of its philanthropic work. The Salvation Army began in 1865, when one man and his wife, Mr. and Mrs. Booth, took up their stand as street-preachers on Mile End Green. Its

* It was by this Act that the employment in theatres of children under ten years of age was prohibited.

progress was comparatively slow, and in 1877 there were only 30 corps, with 36 officers. By 1890 it had covered the world with its organisations; 2,864 corps were scattered over 32 different countries and colonies, with 9,349 officers exclusively devoted to the work, and 13,000 non-commissioned officers rendering voluntary service. From mere force of numbers the Salvation Army cannot be ignored by any section of the community, either as an avowed spiritual organisation, a philanthropic agency, or a political influence.

In 1890 Mr. Booth published a remarkable book bearing his own name, but written, it was believed, by another hand, entitled "In Darkest England, and the Way Out," in which he propounded a gigantic scheme intended to solve "the problem of the unemployed." The scheme was to consist "in the formation of these people into self-helping and self-

THE SALVATION ARMY.

sustaining communities, each being a kind of Co-operative Society, or patriarchal family, governed and disciplined on the principles which have already proved so effective in the Salvation Army." These communities were to be called "Colonies," and were to comprise: (1) The City Colony—a number of institutions to act as Harbours of Refuge for all and any who have been shipwrecked in life, character, or circumstances. (2) The Farm Colony—a settlement on an estate in the country in the culture of which the "Colonists" would find employment and obtain support, while the processes of reformation would be carried forward, and a knowledge of agriculture acquired. (3) The Over-Sea Colony—to be populated by those who had passed through the "City" and "Farm" Colonies, and so "to lay the foundations, perchance, of another Empire to swell the vast proportions in later times." To start the scheme, Mr. Booth appealed for £100,000. The sum was readily obtained. Mr. Booth then announced that in order to carry on the scheme he must have £30,000 a year for the purpose. As the great undertaking has been continued to this day with ever-growing success, we may presume that whatever he may ask for he will be sure to have.

In the sphere of Religion it cannot be gainsaid that marked changes have taken place during the last quarter of the century. The introduction of cycling, the rise of Sunday Leagues, the opening of picture galleries and museums on Sunday, the increase of Sunday trading, and the licensing of Sunday amusements, have all conspired to bring about a change, a remarkable change, in the character and observance of the Sabbath. The passion, or mania, for sport and athleticism, the multiplication of theatres, music halls, and other places of amusement, the enormous increase in works of fiction and other light literature, the restless craving for excitement in the social life of the people, and the teachings of irresponsible teachers, have all conspired to bring about a change, a remarkable change, in the religious life and character of the English speaking peoples. There recently fell into the hands of the present writer a programme of proceedings in connection with a charitable fête lasting the entire day. At the bottom was the significant note: "N.B.—There is not one serious item on the programme." It was a very typical *nota bene*. The old "seriousness," or earnestness, which once was the crowning feature of English character, is rapidly passing away.

CARDINAL MANNING.

There are few who will deny that philanthropy never stood in a more erect and vigorous attitude than it does to-day; there are few who will deny that the religious life of the people is less vigorous than in an earlier part of the century. Without encroaching on the province of the preacher, and without any leaning to sectarianism, it may be said here, as a matter of observation on the "life" of the century, that in religious affairs, form appears to be taking the place of power, outward service supplanting inward spirituality, the religion of fashion ousting the religion of devotion, the outward and visible signs overshadowing the inward and spiritual graces. We see around us the Catholic Revival, as it is called, consisting in, amongst other things, a multiplication of religious services, a variety of intricate ceremonies, a considerable increase of music, incense, vestments, and subdued light and colour, and brilliantly fashionable congregations; we cannot shut our eyes to the fact that Roman Catholicism is making enormous advances in this country, nor our ears to the utterances of its Cardinals forecasting the time when England shall return to the "true faith;" we cannot disregard the empty London churches, or the poverty of attendance at almost all churches, especially at the Sunday evening services, unless a Black Bishop, or a Converted Gypsy, or a special "mission" offers some "attraction." Processions and censers, quaintly robed choristers, bands of music, lime-light illustrations, and big advertisements, appear to the present writer to indicate rather a form of religion than its power, and to sadly militate against the good old saying, "God is greatly to be feared in the assembly of His saints, and to be had in reverence of all them that are about Him."

As we have seen elsewhere,* the spirit of the Oxford Movement has spread in a thousand different directions and developed into as many ramifications: the Free

*See page 336.

Christian Churches have become more united and therefore more powerful; while efforts to revive the religious spirit have been as numerous as they have been phenomenal. In 1875, two Americans, D. L. Moody and Ira D. Sankey, commenced a series of "Revival Gatherings" in the Agricultural Hall, Islington, and subsequently at Eton and at the Haymarket Theatre. At the latter place the afternoon gatherings were attended by many of the aristocracy, and on one occasion by the Princess of Wales. These evangelists were unlettered men, without any theological training, not belonging to any denomination, yet thousands upon thousands of people of all degrees in station and mental culture flocked to hear them, and willingly contributed the £28,238 required to defray the expenses of the mission It was a phenomenon. So also was the ministry of Charles Haddon Spurgeon, at the Metropolitan Tabernacle, Newington Causeway, who died at Mentone, on the 31st of January, 1892. He and Cardinal Manning, both good men of exceptional spiritual gifts, died much about the same time. They had been the acid and the alkali that had created much of the religious effervescence of the times. Spurgeon detested Popery, the theatre, and the "higher criticism," with a perfect detestation. In his later days he considered that the Church and the World were alike on the "down-grade," and he despaired of being able to do more than utter a protest against the tendency of the times. But he had rendered yeoman's service in his day in his splendid stand for Protestantism, in his consistent proclamation of what he conceived to be "the Gospel," and in his noble-hearted philanthropy. He preached and printed thousands of sermons, and left behind him almost as many more, which have been circulated and eagerly read in every English-speaking land under the sun.

A revision of the authorised version of the Bible of 1611 was mooted in Parliament so early as 1856, and was fully discussed by both Houses of Convocation in 1870, when it was resolved to form two companies of scholars, one for the revision of the authorised version of the Old Testament, and one for the revision of the same version of the New Testament. Two committees of American scholars were also formed to act with the two English companies on the basis of the principles and rules drawn up by the Committee of Convocation. The work of revision of the whole Bible was commenced on the 22nd of June, 1870. The labours of the New Testament revisers occupied 407 days, and were brought to a close on the 11th of November, 1880, and on the 17th of May, 1881, the revised edition of the New Testament was issued from the presses of the Oxford and Cambridge Universities. The revision of the Old Testament was completed on the 20th of June, 1884, having occupied 792 days, and was published on the 19th of May, 1885.

Great fears were entertained in certain quarters that a revised version of Holy Scripture would create uncertainty in people's minds as to which was and which was not a true and reliable version, but these fears were dissipated on publication, and the *popular* verdict took this form: that the revised version was of little or no use to the unlearned masses, while to the learned few it was insufficient; that it went too far in some places in interfering with the grand and simple beauty of the authorised version, and did not go far enough in criticism to make it worth while giving up the other for.

We have already told the story of the main events in the political and national life of the last twenty-five years in separate chapters, and now turn to glance at some of "the lines left out."

Expansion of territory went on apace. In 1874 the King of the Fiji Islands ceded his country to the British Government, represented at the time by Sir Hercules Robinson, commanding the *Dido*, and in February, 1875, the colony of Fiji was constituted and a

Governor appointed. In 1884 we annexed all the Southern Coasts of New Guinea. In 1886, after the surrender of King Theebaw, Lord Dufferin proclaimed the annexation of Upper Burmah to the British Empire. In 1888 our flag was hoisted on the Harvey or Cook's Islands in the Pacific Sea, and in 1889 on the Suwarrow Islands. In 1890 the British Government made an agreement with the German Government defining the respective spheres of influence in Africa; at the same time Heligoland was ceded to Germany, and the protectorate of Zanzibar granted to Great Britain. Of our acquisitions in South Africa we have written elsewhere.

During the five years (from April, 1880, to June, 1885,) that Mr. Gladstone was Premier some important measures were passed, notwithstanding that Irish questions and foreign affairs stood in the way of better things. A Ground-game Act gave relief to tenants by allowing them to kill hares and rabbits that had hitherto been preserved by the landlords to the injury of the tenants' crops. The Employers Liability Act made employers responsible for injuries sustained by their workmen when resulting from neglect on the part of the employer or his agents. A Burials Act removed a grievance of Nonconformists who were now at liberty to use their own religious service at the burial of their dead, conducted by any minister, whether in a churchyard or a cemetery. Flogging was finally abolished in the Army and Navy. The Married Women's Property Act recognised for the first time that women could hold property, and gave them an absolute right to their earnings, or to any property that might come to them before or after marriage, to be used as they might please, without any right of the husband to interfere;* and a new Bankruptcy Act, provided for an independent examination into all the circumstances of insolvency, to be conducted by officials of the Board of Trade.

The most important measure under Mr. Gladstone's Ministry, was the Reform Bill of 1884, for household suffrage in the counties, or, in other words, for the inclusion of the agricultural labourers. The Bill passed its second reading by a majority of 130, and was carried without a division on the third reading. It was thrown out, however, in the House of Lords on the ground that redistribution of seats should accompany the extension of the franchise. There were great popular demonstrations against the House of Lords, and when Mr. Gladstone re-introduced his Bill in the autumn the second reading was carried by a majority of 140, and an arrangement was then arrived at between Mr. Gladstone and Lord Salisbury for a Redistribution of Seats Bill. The result was that the electorate of the United Kingdom was raised to over five millions, and the number of members in the House of Commons was raised to 670. Many small boroughs that had escaped disfranchisement in 1832 now became absorbed in the surrounding country districts; many large boroughs were divided, with a number given to each division in about the proportion of one member to every 50,000 people. London acquired by this arrangement several more members, and Scotland gained twelve additional seats.

In 1886 Mr. Gladstone's Government was defeated for a second time as we have seen, and Lord Salisbury became Prime Minister. During his administration (1888) Mr. Goschen's Bill for the Conversion of the National Debt passed through all its stages in the Lords and Commons with great rapidity, and was regarded as a subtle and masterly measure. It offered the holders of Three per Cent. Stock the choice of being paid off at par, or of retaining their Stock and receiving 2¾ per cent. for fifteen

* The first Married Women's Property Act was passed in 1870. Subsequent Acts, especially that of 1882, extended the provisions of the original Act.

years, and thereafter to be guaranteed 2½ per cent. for twenty years. Not many fundholders withdrew their money; the success of the scheme was at once assured, the Two-and-Three-quarters per Cent. "Goschen's" became worth considerably more than the old "Consols," and Mr. Goschen's operation was said to have "founded English credit on a new and broader basis, enlarged the borrowing power of the State, and reduced the burden of the public debt."*

The two great leaders of the political world passed away during the period under consideration. On the 19th of April, 1881, Lord Beaconsfield went peacefully to his last rest, and was buried at Hughenden Church, near High Wycombe. Three princes

HUGHENDEN MANOR, LORD BEACONSFIELD'S RESIDENCE.

of the blood followed him to the grave, and two wreaths from the Queen were placed upon his bier—one was composed of primroses, and bore the inscription: "His favourite flowers, from Osborne, a tribute of affection from Queen Victoria;" the other was a wreath of bay leaves and everlasting flowers, with an inscription in letters of gold: "A mark of true affection, friendship, and respect, from the Queen." His had been a dazzling career; he had charmed the world with his wit and wisdom, his romances and adventures, his daring successes and disastrous blunders, and there was great regret when he passed away.†

Mr. Gladstone survived Lord Beaconsfield for seventeen years. Although he withdrew from public life on the 1st of March, 1894, on the ground that advancing years had deprived him of the physical strength that could have enabled him to

* In September, 1898, "Goschen's" had fallen to 98.

† Among a thousand good and audacious things that Lord Beaconsfield wrote and said one deserves to be enshrined in some "Curiosities of Language." He described Mr. Gladstone on one occasion as "a sophisticated rhetorician, inebriated with the exuberance of his own verbosity, and gifted with an egotistical imagination that can at all times command an interminable and inconsistent series of arguments to malign his opponents and to glorify himself!"

defy the fatigue of parliamentary duties, he maintained to the last the glorious strength and vigour of his great intellect, and the grandeur of his eloquence was undiminished. His industry never failed; from his retirement he watched and attempted to aid with his powerful pen the claims of Greece, the rights of Christians under Turkish rule, and "all oppressed peoples rightly struggling to be free;" he plunged into the religious controversies of the time, especially with regard to the relations of the Church of England and the Church of Rome, and took up, with the zeal of youth and the ripe knowledge of age, other literary work. In the winter of 1897 visits to Cannes and Bournemouth failed to revive his declining health; he returned to Hawarden, and died on the 19th of May, 1898 (Ascension Day), at the age of 88.

HAWARDEN CASTLE, MR. GLADSTONE'S RESIDENCE.

Yielding to the demand of the nation, his family consented to the removal of his body to London, where, for two days, it lay in State in Westminster Hall, and on the 28th of May was interred in Westminster Abbey, two of the pall bearers on the occasion being the Prince of Wales and the Duke of York.

During the last decade of the century the cries of war echoed through all the world, year after year, with scarcely any interval. To some of these wars we have already alluded, in others the disputes involved are still under discussion, and it would be premature to do more than glance at them in passing.

In 1891 the Chilian Civil War broke out; the President, Balmaceda, with the greater part of the Army, against the Congressionists, with the greater part of the Navy. In the course of the struggle the insurgents gained many victories, captured Valparaiso and Santiago, and Balmaceda and many of his colleagues escaped for their lives.

Eventually the Congressional Army was disbanded, France, Germany, and Italy recognised the new Chilian Provisional Government, and Balmaceda committed suicide in the house where he was hiding at Santiago. Since his downfall Chili has enjoyed peace and prosperity.

In August, 1894, Japan declared war against China. The Chinese were defeated at Ping Yang (Corea) with a loss estimated at 16,000, and again in a naval engagement in Corea Bay. Early in 1895 the greater portion of the Chinese fleet, in attempting to escape from Wei-hai-wei, was sunk by the Japanese fleet stationed outside the harbour. Notwithstanding their enormous superiority in numbers, their wide extent of territory,

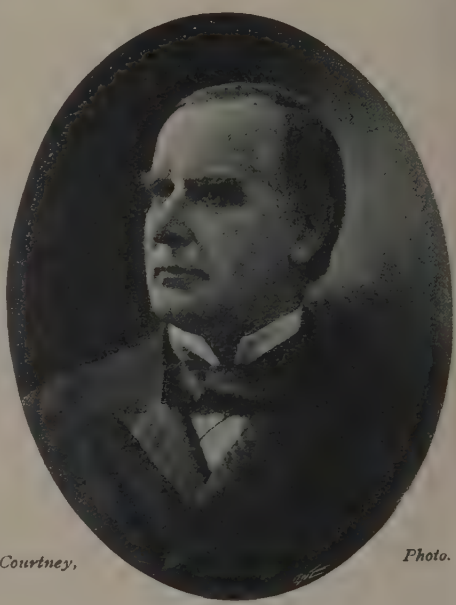
EASTERN ENTRANCE TO WEI-HAI-WEI.

and their wealth, the Chinese were signally defeated, and on the 5th of March Li Hung Chung left Pekin for Japan, with full powers to make a treaty of peace. The negociations were completed, and on the 16th of April the treaty was signed at Shimonoseki, by which China recognised the independence of Corea, ceded the Island of Formosa and the Pescadores Islands, and submitted to the payment of an indemnity equal to about £30,000,000 sterling.

In 1895 the French took possession of the Island of Madagascar, after fighting with fever that proved to be a greater enemy than the Hovas. Although few shots were fired, Madagascar, abandoned by the false friends who should have stood by her in the hour of peril, had no strength in her normal army of 70,000 men, who "bolted like hares before the attack of a handful of French troops." The French suffered severely, however; out of 15,000 troops sent from France, 7,500, or every other man in the whole expedition,

were stricken down with fever, of whom 3,000 died, and the remainder were left mere wrecks of their former selves.

A serious difficulty arose in 1895 between Great Britain and the United States on a question of disputed frontier, *i.e.*, the exact boundaries of the British Colony of Guiana and the insignificant South American Republic of Venezuela. On the 17th of December all the world was startled by a message of President Cleveland to Congress declaring that the action of the British Government was in contravention of the Monroe Doctrine—which, being interpreted, means "America for the Americans,"—that a Commission should be appointed to arbitrate between Great Britain and Venezuela, and ending with the unnecessary threat that "it would be the duty of the United States to resist by every means in its power as a wilful aggression upon its rights and interests the appropriation by Great Britain of any lands which, after investigation, may be determined of right to belong to Venezuela." This open menace produced an outburst of feeling which, but for the coolness and forbearance of the English Government, might have led to serious consequences. The matter was satisfactorily arranged by arbitration, and every year since the bonds of blood and mutual interests have drawn the peoples of the two great nations so closely together that such an episode is not likely to occur again.



Courtney, *Photo.*

WILLIAM MC.KINLEY,
PRESIDENT OF THE UNITED STATES.

While the Venezuelan question, the Armenian and the Egyptian difficulties, and the troubles in South Africa were still casting their shadows over the world, an insurrection of the Cretan subjects of the Sultan broke out, and Greece unwisely, but generously, lent her aid in support of the insurgents. Hoping and believing that she would be backed by the Powers, misjudging the strength of the Ottoman Power, inflated with the heroic spirit of bye-gone years, Greece declared war against Turkey in April, 1897. But the Powers held back; Greece was but as a babe in the hands of giants; the Turks carried everything before them, and the war had only been a few weeks in progress when the Ambassadors of France, Russia, Germany, Austria, Italy, and Great Britain commenced negociations with the Porte with a view to settling terms of peace.

When President McKinley assumed office in March, 1897, his inaugural address did not contain a word about Cuba, at that very time in a state of insurrection, fighting for freedom. Yet, on the 21st of April, 1898, war broke out between the United States and Spain consequent upon the manner in which Cuba—which lies not far off the American State of Florida—was being governed by its Spanish rulers. On the 1st of May Commodore George Dewey, with the United States squadron—which had been withdrawn from Hong Kong—entered the fortified harbour of Manila unobserved, and completely destroyed the Spanish fleet without casualties! The issue of the war was a foregone conclusion; before the end of November Spain was completely beaten in the struggle, after losing two navies and several of her strong places in the West Indies and in the Philippines.

CHAPTER LI.

CONCERNING LOCAL GOVERNMENT.

HOUSEHOLDERS are well acquainted with the formal demand note for payment of rates, which comes to them with unfailing regularity, and usually contains some particulars of the objects to which the rates are applied. Those who have enjoyed a long acquaintance with demand notes are only too well aware that rates show a persistent tendency to increase, and, until the aims and objects of the various bodies who control the Local Government of the country are more precisely defined, it seems probable that rates will continue to go up. We cannot have improvements, local or otherwise, without paying for them, and the rates are, in fact, the taxes we pay for an improved system of local government.

Until the passing of the Local Government Act of 1888 the local government of counties in England and Wales was controlled by the justices of the peace meeting in quarter sessions. They did their work efficiently and economically, but the exercise of their powers was a total contradiction of the principle that taxation and representation should go together, for the justices were not elected, and those who paid county rates had no voice in the expenditure of the money raised. The Act of 1888 transferred many of the powers of the justices to County Councils, who are elected by county electors, that is, speaking broadly, by the ratepayers. The number of county councillors varies according to the size and population of the county, which, for the purposes of the elections, is divided into districts. In addition to the councillors, who hold office for three years, there are a certain number of aldermen, who are elected by the councillors, and hold office for six years, and the aldermen and councillors sitting together as one body form the County Council. They control the county buildings, bridges, lunatic asylums, and reformatories, maintain the chief highways, appoint coroners, supervise the registration of electors, undertake other minor duties, and jointly with the Court of Quarter Sessions superintend the police. They possess certain powers of raising money on loan, and can make rates to meet their ordinary expenditure.

By the Local Government Act such boroughs as contained a population of 50,000 and upwards were separated from the counties in which they are situate, and became county boroughs. The Municipal Corporations of these county boroughs, which include all important towns, possess and exercise the powers of County Councils.

In 1894 there was a further important development of local government. By an Act of Parliament which became law in that year, the ancient vestry meetings in rural parishes were superseded by parish meetings and Parish Councils. In every rural parish with a population of 300 or more, a council is elected, and parishes with a less population are either grouped or, in some instances where the population exceeds 100, may elect a council. Every Parish Council consists of a chairman and from five to fifteen members. and has power to raise a rate, limited to sixpence in the pound, to pay its expenses. The powers of these councils include the appointment of overseers and assistant overseers, certain duties formerly attached to the office of churchwarden, the maintenance of closed churchyards, the control of village greens and allotments, the provision of recreation

grounds, the repair of footpaths, and other minor duties. A Parish Council can also acquire or rent land for certain purposes, and has a voice in the management of parochial charities. It was supposed at the time of their establishment that Parish Councils would give an impetus to the moribund life of small English villages, but it is perhaps doubtful whether these expectations have been realised. It is easier now than formerly for village Hampdens with dauntless breasts to withstand the little tyrants of their fields, but such tyrants are probably rare, and there is small scope for the energies of the Hampdens.

County Councils and Parish Councils are not the only local authorities of England and Wales. The boroughs are governed by Municipal Corporations, and since these bodies were reformed, sixty-five years ago, large additions have been made to their powers. The duties of School Boards have been described in a former chapter, and the powers of Boards of Guardians, Rural District Councils, and Urban District Councils must be briefly related to complete the sketch of local government. The chief business of the Guardians is the care and relief of the poor, but they have also duties to perform in connection with the registration of births and deaths, and the carrying out of the vaccination laws. In the larger parishes, Guardians are elected for the parish, but smaller parishes are grouped into Poor Law Unions, each parish electing its own guardians, and the elect of the various parishes form the Board which transacts the business of the Union. Rural District Councils are intermediate between County and Parish Councils, manage the less important roads of their district, and have general charge of the sanitary arrangements. Urban District Councils may be compared with Municipal Corporations, and have very similar, though not such extensive powers, and, of course, are lacking in whatever dignity and prestige attaches to a Mayor and Corporation. All these three bodies are elected by the ratepayers, male and female, and hold office for three years.

The London County Council was, like other County Councils, created by the Local Government Act of 1888, but its work differs so materially from the work of an ordinary County Council that a somewhat detailed description seems necessary to enable the reader to understand what progress has been made in the government of London. The Municipal Corporation Act of 1835 did not affect London, and the unreformed Lord Mayor, Aldermen, and Common Council still rule within the limits of the City proper. Outside those limits local government was, until 1855, in the hands of the parish vestries, but in that year a Metropolitan Board of Works was constituted by Act of Parliment, and entrusted with certain duties which affected the whole of London. The Board consisted of delegates chosen by the Corporation of the city and the vestries of the various parishes within the area over which its powers extended, and during the thirty-three years of its existence it did much useful work. The main drainage system and the Thames Embankment are the best monuments of the Metropolitan Board of Works. The former consists of six huge sewers, three on each side of the river, through which the sewage of London passes to Barking or Crossness, where it was formerly allowed to flow into the Thames, but is now subjected to a chemical process by which the harmless effluent is separated from the sludge; the effluent is discharged into the river, and the sludge, which amounts to more than 2,300,000 tons a year, is carried out to sea in specially constructed vessels. The volume of sewage is, of course, increasing with the growth of London, and it is not improbable that in a few years the County Council will be obliged to build new main drains.

The London County Council consists of 19 aldermen and 118 councillors, the former elected by the councillors for six years, and the latter by the electors of the fifty-

eight districts into which London is divided for the purpose, for three years. The area governed by the Council covers 121 square miles, and includes parts of the geographical counties of Middlesex, Surrey, and Kent, and, for certain purposes, the city of London. The population of this area was in 1896, 4,433,018. The Council inherits powers formerly vested in the Metropolitan Board of Works, including main drainage, the fire brigade, parks and open spaces, the construction and maintenance of bridges over, and tunnels under, the Thames (except such as are under the control of the city), street improvements, supervision of buildings, artisans' dwellings, tramways, and other matters which need not be set out in detail. From the justices of the peace it has taken over the granting of music and dancing licenses, pauper lunatic asylums, reformatories and

Photochrom Co.

THE TOWER BRIDGE.

industrial schools, the appointment of coroners, and the testing of weights and measures. From other bodies it has received powers relating to highways, lodging-houses, slaughter-houses, and the licensing of theatres, not included in the jurisdiction of the Lord Chamberlain. To these duties have been added from time to time technical education, electoral registration, inspection of factories and other minor matters, and, as if all these were not sufficient for its energies, the Council is seeking powers to buy out the Water Companies, and would probably not object to buy out the Gas and Electric Lighting Companies, and to have a share in the control of the police. In respect to lighting, water, and police, London is behind many other large towns, but time alone will show whether any of these matters will ever fall into the hands of the County Council. It has attempted to obtain authority from Parliament to bring water from the upper valleys of the Wye and Towy, in South Wales, to London, at an estimated cost of £17,000,000. Such a work, if ever carried out, would be one of the greatest engineering achievements the world has ever seen.

The Council now owns nearly all the tramways in London, and is anxious to extend and work them by electricity or other mechanical means. It has expended more than £600,000 on working-class dwellings, which are mostly self-supporting, but unfortunately the cost in too many cases has been such as to necessitate rents beyond the means of those who are most in need of better house accommodation. Suitable healthy dwellings for the very poor are urgently needed in London, but financial considerations, which ought not to be neglected, have hitherto prevented the Council from supplying this need. One of the most popular branches of the Council's work is the control of parks and open spaces, which have been added to and greatly improved under their rule.

The financial responsibilities of the Council are heavy. Their total debt exceeds £42,000,000, but nearly £17,000,000 of this amount have been lent to the London School Board, to Vestries and other authorities, and the property of the Council is valued at £2,500,000, so that the net amount of debt may be set down at £22,500,000. The expenditure of the Council, including repayment of the debt for the year ended, 31st March, 1899, may be put down at £3,725,000, which was met by a County rate at 13½d. in the pound, producing £2,043,000, by a contribution from the National Exchequer amounting to £562,000, and from miscellaneous sources.

By the London Government Act of 1899 an important reform has been brought about in the local government of the metropolis. The city has not been materially affected by the change, but the powers hitherto exercised by the Vestries and District Boards have been transferred to the Corporations of twenty-eight metropolitan boroughs, which correspond as to area with fifteen of the more populous parishes, while thirteen of the new boroughs consist of two or more parishes or districts. The most important of all these is the New Westminster, which is, however, but a restoration of the ancient parish of St. Margaret's, and extends westward from the city and includes St. James's Westminster, St. George's Hanover Square, and the intervening district. Each of the twenty-eight boroughs is governed by a mayor, aldermen and councillors, the number of the aldermen and councillors varying according to the size of the borough, but in no case does the total number exceed seventy. How far the new Corporations will improve the government of London time will show, but it is not unreasonable to hope that they will be superior to the Vestries and District Boards which sometimes did good work, but were too often a fortuitous concourse of men without qualifications for municipal duties and too much addicted to self-seeking and jobbery. Now is the opportunity of changing for the better the government of the greatest city of the world, and if the Corporations rise to the occasion, the next generation may see such improvements in London as may justly entitle the inhabitants to be proud of their city.

CHAPTER LII.

PROGRESS OF THE ARTS, SCIENCES, &c.

1875-1900.

A CURIOUS experiment was made in 1877. Mohammed Ali, the Viceroy of Egypt, had presented to the British Government in 1819 the famous monolith known as Cleopatra's Needle,* but it was left lying in the sands at Alexandria until Dr. Erasmus Wilson offered the munificent sum of £10,000 to bring it to England. The difficulty of transit was overcome by encasing it in an iron cylinder, and the curious obelisk-ship, the *Cleopatra*, a cigar-shaped vessel, was towed by a steamer, the *Olga*. In a heavy gale in the Bay of Biscay the obelisk had to be

BROOKLYN BRIDGE.

abandoned, the *Cleopatra* was thrown on her beam ends, and six men of the *Olga* perished in their attempt to rescue her crew, who were all saved. Eventually the obelisk-ship was recovered at sea by a passing vessel 90 miles north of Ferrol, and in 1878 the monolith was erected on the Thames Embankment. Inscriptions on the pedestal give the history of this ancient obelisk, and on the river face of the pedestal is a memorial, added at the suggestion of the Queen, to the men who lost their lives in their attempt to succour the crew of the *Cleopatra*.

Among the great engineering works of the period under consideration may be mentioned especially the construction of bridges, tunnels, and canals. On Sunday, the

* It was first erected at On (Heliopolis) about 1,500 B.C., and afterwards at Alexandria in the 8th year of Augustus Cæsar, B.C. 25.

28th of December, 1879, there occurred the greatest railway disaster that had ever happened in Great Britain. As a train was crossing the Tay Bridge while a fierce hurricane was raging, a section of the bridge, measuring 3,300 feet, was cut away by the fury of the storm, and the train, with the wreckage of the bridge, was dashed into the dark waters of the Tay. There were seventy-five adults, and from ten to fifteen children in the carriages, and not a soul escaped. It was found on official inquiry that the bridge was badly designed and badly constructed, and it was determined not to repair it, but to replace it by an entirely new one of solid strength. The new Tay Bridge was not opened for traffic until June, 1887. It is two miles seventy-three yards long, and contains eighty-five piers, carries a double line of rails on a steel floor, and has an average height above high-water of seventy-seven feet under four of the spans in the navigable channel.

Brooklyn Bridge, over the East River, connecting New York with Brooklyn, was opened in May, 1883. It is the largest suspension bridge in the world, having a total length of 5,990 feet, and cost the enormous sum, including the land, of 15,000,000 dollars.

The Forth Bridge, one of the great wonders of the century, nearly a mile-and-a-half long, and built on the cantilever system, 156 feet above the water, was designed by Sir John Fowler and Sir Benjamin Baker. It was commenced in 1883, and opened to the public by the Prince of Wales in March, 1890; it is constructed of Siemen's steel, the total quantity used being about 50,000 tons, and the total cost of the bridge three millions sterling.

Tower Bridge, a magnificent looking work of the bascule type, which has given an adequate gateway to the port of London, was opened in June, 1894.

Of tunnels, the two of greatest importance are the tunnel, four-and-a-half miles in length, under the Severn, which greatly shortens the route by the Great Western Railway from London to South Wales, and the railway tunnel under the Mersey, from Liverpool to Birkenhead.

Of canals, the Isthmus of Corinth Canal, begun in 1882 and opened in 1893, is the most interesting. It is only four miles long, but saves two hundred miles of navigation; it has no locks; the deepest cut is 228 feet; three thousand men were employed in its construction. More than eighteen hundred years ago the tyrant Nero commenced a canal at the same place, and traces of his work are still to be found. He abandoned the undertaking on learning from the scientists of his day that the sea was higher on one side of the Isthmus than on the other.

The Manchester Ship Canal—a great monument of engineering ability and a triumph of the civic spirit—was commenced in 1887, and was opened by the Queen in person in 1893. It is thirty-five-and-a-half miles long, and cost fifteen-and-a-half million pounds sterling. As Manchester is sixty-five feet above the sea level five locks were necessary to elevate the incoming ships; but the construction of the canal presented greater difficulties than this owing to the shifting sandbanks at the mouth of the Mersey above Liverpool. Moreover, the crooked Mersey lay so in the way that it had to be crossed six times, while the Bridgewater Canal had to be crossed once.

Within a period of thirty years nearly three thousand vessels were wrecked in passing through the Cattegat around the north shore of Denmark, and hundreds of lives were lost. All this has been obviated by the construction of the Baltic and North Sea Canal—an important engineering work—which was commenced in 1887, and opened for traffic in 1895.

A series of remarkable engineering feats marked the construction of the Canadian Pacific Railway which was to bridge the wildernesses that separated the provinces united by the British North American Act. It was a daring project to build a railway that should traverse British North America from the St. Lawrence to the Pacific, but it was, nevertheless, commenced in 1871, and opened for traffic in 1886. On the 5th of July in the latter year, the first direct passenger train reached Port Moody on the Pacific, punctual to time, having left Montreal on June 28th, with about seventy passengers. From Montreal the line goes on to Ottawa, thence round the north of the Great Lakes to Port Arthur at the head of Lake Superior, and from there to Winnipeg, Manitoba, thence to Stephen, in the Rocky Mountains ; then across British Columbia to Vancouver, on the Pacific. The length of the line from Montreal to Vancouver is two thousand nine hundred and nine miles, without counting side extensions and leased lines. Since it has been

MANCHESTER SHIP CANAL, NEAR LATCHFORD.

finished the development of Manitoba and the other regions of the Great Lone Land has been very rapid ; nine new provinces, with a population of over three hundred thousand souls, have come into existence in that once desolate and uninhabited country. The line is not only of Colonial but of national importance, as it is a means of communication between Europe and Eastern Asia and Australasia, and is a military highway binding together the great masses of the British Empire. In passing from Liverpool to Japan or Northern China, a distance of about one thousand one hundred miles is saved if the route taken is viâ Halifax, Montreal, and Vancouver, rather than by the Suez Canal and Singapore.

Among the curiosities of engineering and architectural skill during the latter part of the century may be mentioned the Eiffel Tower, in the Champ de Mars, Paris—a

permanent memorial of the exhibition of 1889, held in that city; the Big Wheels of Chicago and of Earl's Court Exhibition in London; the gigantic Law Courts in the Strand, opened in December, 1882, designed by Mr. G. E. Street, and executed at an expense of £750,000; the upheaval of whole districts in the western central parts of London, giving easy access to the two great thoroughfares, the Strand and Oxford Street; the widening of Ludgate Hill; the construction of electric and other underground railways, and the erection of big buildings.

America is responsible for the introduction—it may almost be said the invention—of "tall buildings," or "sky-scrapers," which have been defined as "steel bridges standing on end with passenger cars running up and down within them." Their origin is attributable

CANADIAN PACIFIC RAILWAY. THROUGH SELKIRK MOUNTAINS.

to the over-crowded state of the business centres of great cities, where there is no room to "spread out," and the only alternative is to "go up." The remarkable thing about these enormous structures is that whereas for thousands of years large buildings had been made with walls of solid masonry to hold up the inner framework of floors and partitions, a daring American builder conceived the idea, in 1888, that a framework of steel would answer the purpose better. His invention was instantly successful, and enormously tall steel buildings are to be found in every great city in America, and are beginning to rise in London. An American writer says that "to-day the construction of a tall building is not architecture, but engineering with a stone veneer."

At the corner of Broadway and New Streets, in New York, stands the Manhattan Life Insurance Company's Office, twenty-three stories high, and 242 feet from the side walk to the top of the main roof, 108 feet more to the foot of the flag staff, and 407 feet

from the bottom of the foundations to the foot of the flag staff. It cost nearly two million dollars, and was the tallest building ever erected up to that time for business purposes.

The Broad Street Station of the Pennsylvania Railroad is the tallest business building in Philadelphia, rising to a height of 240 feet at one corner. The building proper is ten stories in height, and has a frontage of 307 feet.*

Sky-scrapers have greatly developed the "elevators," and without them their existence would be impossible, as no one would care to trudge up flights of stairs varying from seven or eight stories to twenty-nine or thirty. They have also effected many improvements in mechanism generally. For instance, every weighty building is liable to settlement, and as sky-scrapers are expected to settle, every effort is made that the settlement should be uniform throughout. "In New York the tall buildings which rest on a foundation of fine wet sand, have all settled from one-quarter to nine-sixteenths of an inch. The Marquette Building, Chicago, and the St. Paul

THE LAW COURTS.

Building, New York, have provision made at the bases of their columns for lifting them up with powerful hydraulic presses and inserting packets of steel should they settle too much!"

How much higher the big buildings of the future may rise is uncertain, but it is expected that they will reach to forty or fifty stories, and it is asserted that steel buildings a fifth of a mile in height are not impossible. There is already in existence, Park Row Building, New York City, which rises twenty-nine stories high, and greater buildings than this are in contemplation and even in progress.

* The City Hall at Philadelphia is believed to be the largest building of any kind in the Western Hemisphere, covering an area of four-and-a-half acres, exclusive of the large court-yard in the centre. The central tower is 510 feet high, being tipped with a statue of William Penn that increases the height to 547 feet. This structure is not, however, of the class described, being properly a stone building, though steel is used in the tower.

In all these extraordinary buildings there are also extraordinary arrangements and appliances. In the Manhattan Life Insurance Office, to which we have already referred, there are ten-and-a-half miles of water, gas, waste, and vent pipes, and here also are laid down thirty-five miles of electric wires. The dead weight of the Park Row Building is 20,000 tons; the total weight the structure will carry is 61,000 tons. There are nine hundred and fifty rooms in the building; the permanent population is estimated at 4,000, and its floating population at 4,000 more; its restaurant is 308 ft. above the street level.

MANHATTAN LIFE INSURANCE CO.'S BUILDINGS, NEW YORK.

In many of these sky-scrapers there are complete ice-water plants with fountains on each floor; each building has its own fire department, post office, police department, electric railroads in its elevators, express cars calling only on the higher floors, complete telegraph, cable, and telephone system, district messenger staff, barbers' shops and baths, newspaper and magazine stalls, restaurants and refreshment rooms, bicycle stores, and a force of workmen to keep clean the "streets" and stairways.

During the period we have under consideration there were some remarkable convulsions of Nature that wrought fearful havoc. In the Eastern Archipelago the great volcano of Krakatoa in the Straits of Sunda, sent up an enormous pillar of white-hot fire of dazzling brilliancy a mile and a half in diameter, and it continued to blaze from the beginning of May, 1883, to the 12th of August. On that day Mr. Van Gestel, who had been sent out by the Dutch Government to make scientific observations, was looking out from his châlet a mile up a mountain slope behind the city of Anger, thirty miles from Krakatoa, enjoying a cigar and a morning cup of coffee. It was a beautiful morning; the birds were singing and the fishermen's boats were lying in the bay at anchor. Suddenly he perceived that all the little boats were moving in one direction, and in a moment they all disappeared. "Instantly," he says, "a great glare of fire right in the midst of water caught my eyes, and all the way across the bay and the strait, and in a straight line of flame to the very Island of Krakatoa itself, the bottom of the sea seemed to have cracked open, so that the subterranean fires were belching forth. On either side of this wall of flames, down into this subaqueous chasm, the waters of the strait were pouring with a tremendous hissing sound, which seemed at every moment as if the flames would be extinguished—but they were not. There were twin cataracts, and between the two cataracts rose a great crackling wall of fire hemmed in by clouds of steam. It was in this abyss that the fishing boats were disappearing even as I looked, whirling down the hissing precipice, the roar of which was already calling out excited crowds in the city of Anger at my feet." While he was looking a deafening explosion partially stunned him. When he recovered:—"Darkness had instantly shrouded the

world. Through this darkness—which was punctuated by distant cries and groans—the falling of heavy bodies, and the creaking disruption of masses of brick and timber, most of all the roaring and crashing of breakers on the ocean, were audible. The city of Anger, with all its sixty thousand people in and about it, had been blotted out, and if any living being save myself remained, I did not find it out then. One of those deafening explosions followed another as some new submerged area was suddenly heaved up by the volcanic fire below, and the sea admitted to the hollow depths where that fire had raged in vain for centuries."*

The volcanic *debris* was shot up from the crater many miles high; the fine ashes were so thick in the sky that six hundred miles away it was necessary to burn lamps all day, and these ashes were caught by the currents and carried completely round the earth.

BROAD STREET STATION, PHILADELPHIA.

"Its effects were traced," says Mr. A. R. Wallace, "some months after the eruption in the appearance of brilliant sunset glows of an exceptional character, often flushing with crimson the whole western half of the visible sky. These glows continued in diminishing splendour for about three years; they were seen all over the temperate zone, and it was calculated that, before they finally disappeared, some of this fine dust must have travelled three times round the globe."†

The city of Anger—which soon lay 100 feet under water—was not the only place to suffer from the immediate effect of the eruption. It was estimated by Mr. Van Gestel that 200,000 persons lost their lives in Java and Sumatra; in many other places every

* From a paper contributed by Mr. Jean Van Gestal to the *Cosmopolitan Magazine*, April, 1895.

† When the great epidemic of influenza broke out, six years after the eruption, there were not a few who attributed the mysterious complaint to the effect of these dust particles floating in the air.

bit of vegetation was consumed and every living creature blasted and burnt up, while the whole north-west coast of Java was covered six and seven feet deep with ashes.

In 1886 (June 9th), the eruption of Mount Tarawera in New Zealand, situate in the midst of the romantic scenery of the Hot Lakes and other volcanic phenomena, destroyed the town of Wairoa and the wonderful Pink and White Terraces near Lake Rotomahana – the most interesting natural objects in all New Zealand. Far more disastrous, however, was the catastrophe that happened in Japan on the 17th of June, 1896, when an earthquake, followed by a tidal wave, caused the death of 28,000 persons, besides causing injury to 23,000 others, and destroying over 7,000 houses. In September, 1900, a terrific hurricane at Galveston (Texas), destroyed the whole town, and 4,000 people perished.

KRAKATOA.

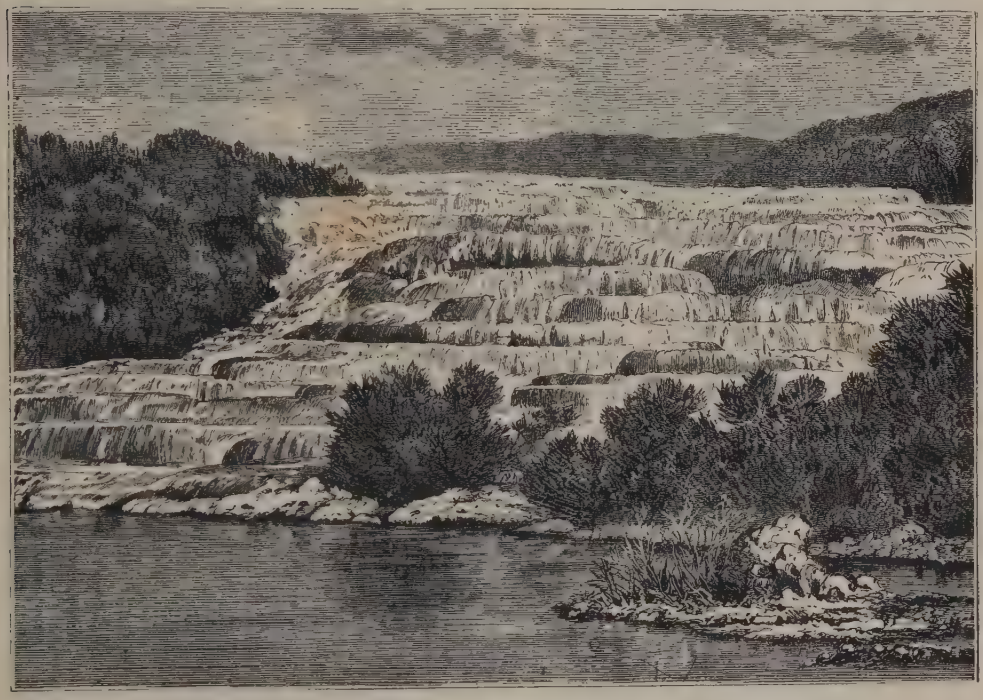
From a photograph taken shortly after the Eruption.

In every department of science the instruments for investigation and analysis have been marvellously improved, and it is instructive to see in the Museum of the Royal Institution of Great Britain the simple apparatus used by Young, Cavendish, Davy, and Faraday, and compare and contrast it with the delicate and perfect instruments in use to-day. Especially is improvement in scientific instruments observable in the chemical, medical, surgical, and dental professions.

In July, 1900, the Royal College of Surgeons celebrated the centenary of its incorporation, and the President, Sir William McCormac, was able to report that the progress of surgery had been greater during the century, more especially in the latter part of it, than in all the preceding centuries put together. This, of course, is very largely due to the combined use of anæsthetics and antiseptics which has robbed the surgeons knife of half its terrors and has enabled the most deeply seated organs to be laid open and operated upon with success. It is claimed that more lives are saved by

surgery than by any other branch of medicine, and this is greatly due to the important discoveries of Lord Lister in the use of antiseptics.

In the treatment of diseases there has been comparatively small progress. Count Mattei thought he had discovered the secret of the cause and cure of cancer, and Dr. Koch hoped he had found a cure for consumption, but the labour of neither of these was crowned with success. Cancer, one of the most terrible as well as one of the most rapidly increasing maladies, still baffles all the efforts of the medical faculty, and its cause and cure remain absolutely unknown, while consumption still claims its tremendous harvest of victims. Of the effect of the open air treatment of consumption, now largely practised in many parts of the world, it is too early to say more than that in a large number of cases it is believed to have been effectual.



OTUKAPURANGI, "THE PINK TERRACE CASCADE," LAKE ROTOMAHANA, DESTROYED BY ERUPTION.

The attention of medical men is being turned more than ever to attacking preventable disease and dealing with such subjects as sanitation, pure air and exercise, pure water supply, good drainage, wholesome food, good morals, and as few drugs as possible. It is anticipated that in years to come such outbreaks of typhoid as occurred quite recently at Worthing, Maidstone, and other places will be less and less frequent if not altogether unknown.

To few medical scientists has the world been more indebted than to the late M. Pasteur, of Paris. He indicated remedies for some of the worst scourges which afflict humanity, especially hydrophobia,* and he organised a successful institution for the

* In 1886 he was able to report that out of 350 patients inoculated for hydrophobia his treatment was successful in every case save one, and in that the patient was brought too late. The famous Pasteur Institution, built for him by public subscription and intended for the reception of hydrophobia patients, was opened in 1888.

conduct of experiments and the practical pursuit of discoveries which had made his name of world-wide fame.

Old customs and old habits of thought die hard, and the village churchyard and the well-kept cemetery with their quiet resting places will never, probably, cease to be a feature of an English landscape. Sanitary science, the new theologies, and other causes have, however, tended to upset the old ideas of burial, and cremation has not only been well discussed but practised in recent years. Among the objections to cremation at first was the difficulty of consuming the body without permitting the escape of noxious exhalations and without mingling the ashes with foreign substances. This has been entirely obviated by Siemen's process, a modification of a plan of Sir Henry Thompson, and the crematorium is in daily use at Woking, as it is in every European country and in most of the American States.*

It is interesting to remember that a hundred years ago the knowledge of oxygen, of the nature of water and of air, and, indeed, the true conception of chemical composition and chemical change, was practically only just beginning to be, while the atomic theory of John Dalton came as an utter surprise. "We have only to read the scientific literature of that time," said Sir Michael Foster at a meeting of the British Association in 1899, "to recognise that a truth which is now not only woven as a master thread into all our scientific conceptions, but even enters largely into the every-day talk and thought of educated people, was a hundred years ago struggling into existence among the philosophers themselves."

A flood of fresh light has, in recent years, been thrown on such apparently commonplace subjects as the water we drink and the air we breathe. On the 12th of August, 1894, Lord Rayleigh communicated to the British Association the discovery of a hitherto unknown constituent of the atmosphere. He had noticed when weighing nitrogen, one of the then supposed two elements forming air, that nitrogen extracted from free air was perceptibly heavier than manufactured nitrogen. Unable to account for the discrepancy he discussed the matter with Professor Ramsay, and the two celebrated chemists set to work to experiment and analyse, with the result that Professor Ramsay sent Lord Rayleigh three ounces of a newly-discovered element (argon) only to find that Lord Rayleigh was in possession of some which he had himself extracted from the air.

Professor Ramsay also discovered in a rare mineral (eleveite) a light gas hitherto recognised by the spectroscope in the atmosphere of the sun but not identified on earth, named Helium.

Professor James Dewar succeeded in liquifying oxygen and nitrogen, and not only so, but he produced liquid air in some quantity and then froze it into musty ice—air ice! "Liquid air is a clear, sparkling substance resembling water, but it is so cold that it boils on ice and freezes alcohol and mercury. Although fluid, it is not wet to the touch, but a drop of it on a man's hand burns like a white-hot iron. It may be dipped up and poured about like so much water, but if it is confined it explodes more terribly than nitro-glycerine, and when left standing in the open air for a few minutes it vanishes in a cold grey mist leaving behind only a bit of white frost." †

* A Roman Catholic decree against cremation was issued from the Vatican in 1886, and the Pope declared, in effect, that good Catholics could only have their bodies cremated at the risk of exposing their souls to everlasting burnings!

† "The Book of Inventions," by Ray Stannard Baker.

Argon, Helium, and Liquid Air are still the subjects of investigation in all parts of the world, and it is too early to determine their full uses, virtues, and propensities. Liquid air has, however, already entered on the industrial stage, and great things are expected from it. It is thought that it can be utilised as a more powerful explosive than any other now in use, that it will run machinery of great power at a small cost, that it will be the force that will make all horseless vehicles successful, that it will solve the problem of aërial navigation, and will in short be capable of endless developments.

There has been no more manifest improvement, in methods and results, in any trade or in any kinds of machinery than in those connected with the art of printing. To John Walter, proprietor of the *Times* newspaper (who died July 28th, 1847), the world is indebted for the first application of steam to printing purposes, when he succeeded in throwing off 1,100 sheets of the *Times* per hour. With the demand for cheap literature machinery has been so perfected that every large city has its presses that will print from five to fifty miles of paper in an hour, and ingenious machines, like the Linotype, that almost seem to think, can set up 100,000 types in a working day of ten hours. The quality of printing has improved as largely as the quantity has increased; this is owing in some measure to better printing inks, and in a great degree to the beautifully coated papers that are now produced from a variety of materials at a much cheaper rate and with ten-fold better results than were the rag papers on which newspapers were printed thirty years ago.

Nowhere, perhaps, can the marvels of modern printing be seen to greater advantage than at the offices of George Newnes, Limited, in Southampton Street, Strand,* where the printing of *Tit-Bits*, one of the most popular weekly publications of the century, may be watched. "Here is a remarkable sight. The machines are the best and latest productions of the inventive genius of the Hoe Company, and do everything but speak. Not only do the machines print the paper in an ideal way at the rate of 24,000 an hour—they perform more marvellous feats than this—they cut, fold, and bind the pages, turning the paper out complete, except for the small matter of edge-trimming."†

With regard to the printing of the famous *Strand Magazine*, with a picture on each page, we are told that "naturally the work here is slower than that performed in the case of the weekly journal. There are, nevertheless, one or two things seen nowhere else in Europe. There is the magnificent 'Rotary Art Press'—the envy of art printers—which prints sixty-four illustrated pages at one revolution of the cylinders. Imagine the miles of paper required in printing a succession of such sheets, and the ink needed to provide the reading public with literary fare. The 'Web Press' is another remarkable machine, which does wonders in the way of printing, and turns out thirty-two pages on one side."‡

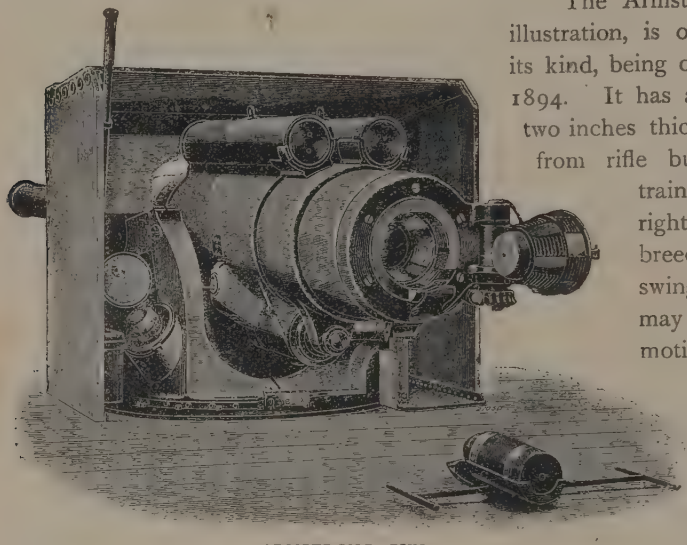
The war spirit that has spread all over Europe in recent years has given rise to an enormous increase of armaments and munitions of war. Modern guns and projectiles, beautiful as they are as pieces of machinery, are nevertheless horrible when they are appreciated only for their death-dealing qualities, and costly battle ships, protected by steel armour, with enormous engines, and working at terrific speed, have none of the beauty or significance of the good old "wooden walls of England," but are a thousand-

* The printing room is open to the inspection of visitors daily.

† "Behind the Scenes of Popular Journalism."—A Lecture. ‡ Ibid.

fold more deadly and destructive. The first ironclad ever built was the *Gloire* for the French Government; this was followed, in 1861, by the building of the *Warrior* for the English Government; and the wild struggle for supremacy in the offensive and defensive powers of ships has gone on uninterruptedly until we have such marvels of ingenuity and science as the *Resolution*, the *Royal Sovereign*, and the *Repulse*.

The largest gun in the early part of the Queen's reign (1837) was a 67 cwt. gun; in 1887 the largest gun was the 110 ton Armstrong gun; which, owing to the difficulties attending such enormous artillery, was superseded in 1897 by 67 ton guns, the largest that are now being built. The huge 110 ton guns cost £20,000 each, and the later 67 ton guns cost £14,000 each.



ARMSTRONG GUN.

The Armstrong gun, shown in the illustration, is one of the best guns of its kind, being of the design marketed in 1894. It has a protective shield some two inches thick, sheltering the gunners from rifle bullets. The wheels for training the gun are on the right, out of view. The breech-lock, it will be seen, swings on a stout hinge, and may be opened with a single motion.

At the time of the Civil War in America, the muzzle-loading rifle, with the percussion cap, was the principal weapon of the foot soldier. With this, two shots a minute could be fired, and it was possible to inflict harm within a range of half a mile, though it was really difficult to shoot to kill at three hundred yards. To-day "the troops of the United States use the Krag-Jörgensen magazine rifle, carrying four cartridges at a loading, and capable of discharging about twenty shots a minute. The bullets are longer, of less calibre, and lighter than formerly, but owing to improved powder have a much greater range and penetration. They will kill at a distance of two miles, which is about as far as one man can comfortably see another without the aid of a glass."

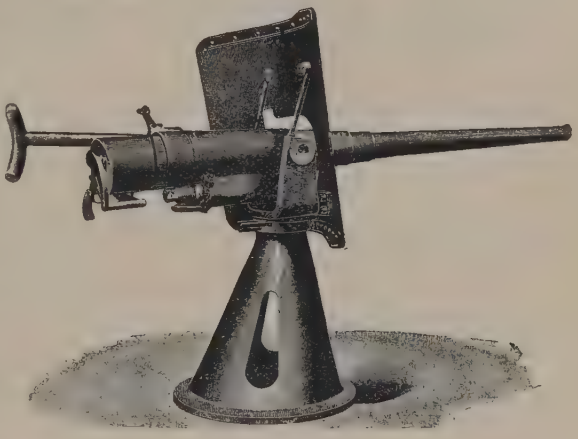
One of the latest inventions in offensive weapons is that of Mr. Hudson Maxim and Dr. Schupphaus, who have taken out patents in all civilised countries on what they call "the Maxim-Schupphaus system of throwing aërial torpedoes from guns by means of a special powder, which starts the projectile with a low pressure and increases its velocity by keeping the pressures well up throughout the whole length of the gun." That is to say they have discovered a method of discharging a dynamite projectile with a powder gun instead of a pneumatic gun, having devised a powder that will give out its gas gradually, if the word may be applied, to a process that takes place within an infinitely small fraction of a second.

The first practical submarine torpedo boat in England was built in 1888 by Mr. J. F. Waddington, and was designed to be carried on the davits of a large naval

vessel for use in emergencies, the length being thirty-seven feet, and the circular section amidships six feet in diameter.

Since that date England, America, France and other countries have given much attention to the subject of submarine warfare, until it has become a saying that by the time a war vessel is built it is out of date. The *Iowa*, during the Spanish-American war, was considered as serviceable a vessel as any commander could wish, but recently a little submarine torpedo boat, defying all searchlights, has shown that the awe-inspiring appearance of an ironclad, with its turrets and guns, is a vain thing if it becomes the target of the small submarine craft. Still more recently the American submarine torpedo boat *Holland* put the battle-ship *Kearsarge* out of action. "She crept up under the very bow of the *Kearsarge*," says the narrator of the incident, "and before anyone aboard that ship knew of her presence, Lieutenant Caldwell, Commander of the *Holland*, announced to the men on the *Kearsarge* that they were torpedoed!"

Although in times of peace experiments such as these are being continually made, submarine boats have on the whole proved unsatisfactory, and their value in time of war remains doubtful.



NORDENFELT GUN.

Important strides have been made in weather-science. Lieutenant Maury (Matthew Fontaine Maury, LL.D.), whose "Physical Geography of the Sea" earned for him a world-wide reputation, was the first to see in a practical way that in meteorological inquiries, more than in any other branch of science, a complete correlation of the results obtained by all workers must be brought to bear, and to him is due the credit of suggesting, and to a large extent of carrying out, the only plan from which any real good could be anticipated. In 1852, with the sanction of the United States Government, he began, by the help of the navy and merchant ships of the United States, to collect observations made at sea in all parts of the world. A conference of the other maritime nations was held in Brussels in 1852, and in 1854 the British Government, in concert with the Royal Society, took steps to further the work. The Meteorological Department of the Board of Trade was established and Admiral Fitzroy was placed at its head. Since then data have been obtained on "everything relating to barometer, thermometer, hydrometer, winds, weather, currents, variations, soundings, crossings, passages, storms, ice, shooting stars, meteors, aurora and electricity," and the whole earth and sky and sea has been divided into fields of observation. The result has been that daily forecasts of the weather now rest upon a scientific basis, and are becoming more and more accurate, indications of approaching gales have been of incalculable value, and knowledge in every branch of meteorology has been vastly extended.

Lord Tennyson, in "Locksley Hall," predicted the future of aërial navigation when the sky would be full of "argosies of magic sails," and there would cruise amidst the clouds "pilots of the purple twilight, dropping down with costly bales;" while the old

types of our men of war would have been swept from off the seas and have been replaced by the "nations' airy navies, grappling in the central blue." Let us see how far the dream has been realised. The whole passage reads thus :—

"For I dipt into the future, far as human eye could see,
Saw the vision of the world, and all the wonder that would be ;
Saw the heavens fill with commerce, argosies of magic sails,
Pilots of the purple twilight, dropping down with costly bales ;
Heard the heavens fill with shouting, and there rain'd a ghastly dew
From the nations' airy navies, grappling in the central blue ;
Far along the world-wide whisper of the south-wind rushing warm,
With the standards of the peoples plunging thro' the thunder-storm ;
Till the war-drum throbb'd no longer, and the battle-flags were furl'd
In the Parliament of man, the Federation of the World."

In all countries inventors have been fascinated by the idea of making flying machines, some by means of steerable balloons, some by imitations of bird-flight, and others by ship propellers. Professor Langley, of Washington, invented a wonderful machine, which he named the Aërodrome, or air-runner, and after years of toil and study, and many failures, at last (May 6th, 1896) he wrote, "I watched it from the shore with hardly a hope that the long series of accidents had come to an end. And yet it had, and for the first time the Aërodrome swept continuously through the air like a living thing. . . It was flown again with equal success, nor was there anything to indicate that it might not have flown continuously except for the limit put upon it."

This was the first time in any part of the world, or in any period, that a machine of man's construction had sustained itself in the air for a minute and a half, for which time only it was provided with fuel and water.

Next in importance comes the invention of Mr. Hiram Maxim, the inventor of the famous quick-firing gun, who made a colossal steam-kite, or aëroplane. "With its crew of three men and its supply of fuel and water, the machine weighed about 8,000 lbs., and the power developed on the screws was 360 horse-power, the screw-thrust being over 2,000 lbs." The theory was that the machine would run along a little railroad provided for it, at a speed of thirty to thirty-five miles an hour, and then leave the rails and rise in the air. But Mr. Maxim never allowed the machine to go free.

The latest and most successful invention is that of Count Zeppelin, who ascended in his famous air-ship on three separate occasions.* The manœuvres attempted were completely successful, and it was proved that the machine could be propelled at enormous speed, could sail against the wind, and that the steering apparatus was so entirely satisfactory that the air-ship could tack and turn as required, or describe a complete circle.

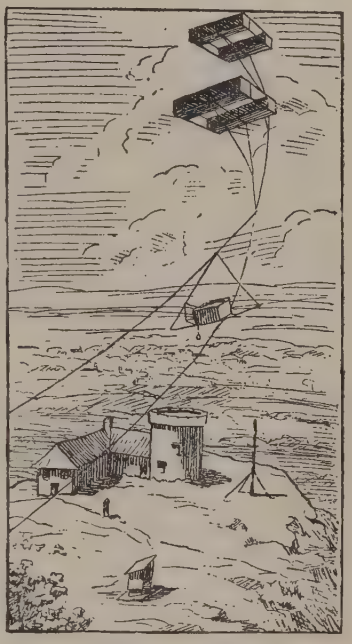
Kite-flying has been reduced to a thoroughly scientific system. Once, as every school-boy knows, Benjamin Franklin drew the lightning from the clouds by means of a kite-string, but after that the kite became, as it had been before, a mere toy, and so it remained until the nineties, when it entered upon a new stage of its time-honoured history, and has become one of the most interesting of modern scientific inventions.

Before 1893 no very valuable observations were made in the atmosphere above 1,500 feet from the ground, but in that year Mr. W. A. Eddy, of Bayonne, New Jersey, invented a kite, in shape very much like the old school-boy type, but tail-less, and sent it up 5,595 feet in the air. Three years later it ascended to 9,400 feet. The news of this travelled round the world, experiments were made everywhere, and in 1899 the Bostonians broke the record by sending a kite to the tremendous height of 12,500 feet, or nearly two-and-a-half miles.

* October 17th, 18th, and 21st, 1900. The ascents were made from Friederichshafen, on the lake Constance, in the presence of the King and Queen of Würtemburg.

New kinds of kites followed. The box-kite was the entirely original invention of Mr. Lawrence Hargrave, of Australia, and the tandem-kite of Captain B. Baden-Powell, of the Scots Guards. Mr. Eddy has sent aloft photograph cameras, and taken pictures of the earth and its cities from high elevations, and he thinks that tail-less kites are capable of being of great use in war by photographing the enemy's works, and showing the exact strength of a fortress in men and guns, and also that a flight of such kites might be sent up loaded with dynamite to be dropped at a given moment. Captain B. Baden-Powell made a kite, built of bamboo and canvas, 36 feet high, and with an area of 500 square feet, and proved that it could lift a man from the ground, but his greatest successes have been with tandem-kites, by which he has been raised to a height of 40 feet from the ground.

It is believed by scientific kite-flyers that, in addition to the uses we have already enumerated, kites may, and will, be employed, among other purposes, for signalling in time of war both with lights and with flags; and, on board ship, for conveying messages from wrecked vessels to shore. Kites are already in use for exploring the upper heights of the air; for conveying instruments which record its condition; for testing the velocity of the wind, and for collecting electricity. Kite records have, moreover, shown the approach of a change in the weather fully twenty-four hours in advance of its first indications at the surface of the ground.



MODERN KITES.

Railways now cover the land like a net-work; they run up the heights of the Rigi and Pilatus, they climb to the eternal snows of the Jungfrau, they run beside the crater of Vesuvius, they rush under the Thames, they hiss and snort in the "Underground" beneath the dwellings of peaceful citizens, they run along the streets and above the house tops in New York, they range over enormous distances, as on the Canadian Pacific Line, and on short convenient routes such as the "Two-penny Tube." There are steam railways, gas railways, petroleum railways, and electric railways, and what further developments may take place in the twentieth century, it is past the power of man to conceive.

In fulfilment of our promise* we turn now to glance at some of the later developments of electricity. Applied electricity is everywhere around us; we have electric railways, electric life-boats, electric cars and trams, electric cabs and motors, electric stairways, and, everywhere, electric lighting. Owing mainly to the labours of Nikola Tesla, the Servian electrician and inventor, the waterfalls at Tivoli light the city of Rome, sixteen miles away, and Niagara supplies energy to the city of Buffalo, twenty-two miles away, besides working the tramways of Baltimore. If his calculations are correct, water power, converted into electricity, can be transmitted, without loss, to the ends of

* See page 334.

the earth. The moderate cost of insulation and transmission will, he anticipates, make this motive power, even at distances as great as that which divides Niagara from London, the cheapest in the world.

When the jubilee of the electric telegraph was celebrated in London, on the 27th of July, 1887, a review was given of the progress of the previous fifty years, and it was shown that whereas at first five wires were required to despatch one message, seven different messages could be sent on one wire, while the rate of sending had increased from four to five words a minute to 462 words in the same time, and that the number of messages transmitted in a week had increased from a few dozens to nearly a million. Since then improvements and developments have never ceased, and have culminated in one of the great marvels of the century—Wireless Telegraphy.

Sir W. H. Preece, chief electrician to the Post Office, Heinrich Hertz, Professor Righi, M. Branby, Dr. Oliver Lodge, Edison, Nikola Tesla, and others had for some time been prosecuting studies to this end, but it was reserved for Signor Guglielmo Marconi—an Italian, whose mother was an Englishwoman—to invent and perfect a system, and put it into practical operation. Any intelligible description of ether and its waves and vibrations, and of scientific apparatus used in sending messages without wires, must of necessity be too technical for insertion in these pages. We can only record some results. A station was first set up in Alum Bay, near the Needles, Isle of Wight, and messages were successfully sent eighteen miles across the channel to Poole, in Dorset, on the mainland. In December, 1898, wireless communication was set up between the South Foreland Lighthouse at Dover and the East Goodwin Lightship, twelve miles distant. "Before the apparatus had been up six months several warnings of wrecks and vessels in distress reached shore, when, but for the Marconi signals, nothing of the danger would have been known." On the 27th of March, 1899, Marconi successfully transmitted messages without wires across the Channel from Dover to Boulogne, a distance of thirty-two miles—the first wireless message ever sent from England to the Continent. Step by step progress has been made, and in August, 1900, the British Admiralty determined to adopt the system on British warships, and gave an order for its installation on thirty-two vessels. The official test was a severe one. Each apparatus had to be tried between Portsmouth and Portland, a distance of sixty-five miles, with the promontory of St. Alban's Head intervening between these two points.

One of the latest inventions by which space as an obstacle to inter-communication is being rapidly annihilated is the Telautograph, by means of which manuscripts, arbitrary signs, and sketches can now be transmitted in exact facsimile as fast as they are written or drawn, no matter what the intervening space may be. The operation without the aid of a professional operator, is simplicity itself. "The sender merely writes his communication in pencil in his ordinary handwriting, at any speed, on a roll of paper five inches wide attached to the instrument, the only precaution necessary being to press hard upon the paper as the electrical contact is made by the pressure. The communication thus sent is reproduced instantly on a similar roll of paper attached to a similar instrument at the other end of the line, whether ordinary writing, cipher, shorthand, figures, arbitrary signs, or descriptive sketches, so that both sender and recipient possess an autographic and indisputable record of the message." The Telautograph is automatic and self-registering, silent, and cannot be tapped so as to intercept a message.

The telephone, or far-speaker, and the phonograph, or sound-recorder, are both American inventions. Both are wonderful; their construction is easy to be understood; their use is universal. The merchant at home in the suburbs now talks to his manager

in the city: the publisher in one part of a town instructs his printer in another; the superintendent of a railway terminus, such as Euston, speaks to the station-master of a junction such as Willesden, and tells him of approaching special trains.

The first successful exhibition of the telephone in London was made on July 14th, 1877, the wires having been laid between the Queen's Theatre in Long Acre, and the Canterbury Music Hall on the Surrey side of the Thames. Ten years later, February 1st, 1887, the King of the Belgians, from his palace in Brussels, carried on a long conversation with M. Grévy at the Elysée in Paris, and in the evening the Queen of the Belgians listened to Gounod's "Faust" being performed at the Paris Opera House. In March, 1891, the first submarine telephone was laid, and telephonic communication was set up between London and Paris—due in great measure to the persistent efforts of Sir W. H. Preece—and the first message transmitted was one from the Prince of Wales to President Carnot.

THE BALTIMORE AND OHIO ELECTRIC LOCOMOTIVE.

A letter in the *Times*, published in June, 1888, announced that a perfected phonograph had been received in England from Mr. Edison, whose voice, although he was three thousand miles away and had spoken into the instrument ten days before, could be distinctly heard and recognised. A little later a new instrument was received, and was exhibited before a large group of persons, who, to their infinite astonishment, heard speeches, songs, and street noises from American streets, that had been "bottled up" in the wonderful little instrument. A still stranger thing happened on the 12th of December, 1890. It was the anniversary of Robert Browning's death, and some of his old friends met at the house of the late Rev. H. R. Haweis, in London, and heard the poet's actual voice—by means of Edison's phonograph—recite one of his own poems! It was very startling, very impressive, and it was historically interesting, inasmuch as it was the first time the instrument had been used to record the voice of the dead.

An amusing incident occurred in 1891 when two envoys from Gungunhana, King of Gazaland, in South Africa, came to England to lay their master's claims before the Queen. They were hospitably entertained, and, for amusement, were invited to speak into a phonograph. When subsequently they heard their own words accurately reproduced they were dumbfounded, and declared that the white man's magic was

beyond their comprehension, adding, it would be no use to tell lies in this country, as their words were recorded and would certainly be brought up against them if they did!

Although the phonograph is a much more wonderful instrument than the telephone, it has not at present the same practical value, but enthusiasts predict the time when we shall have lectures delivered by deceased public speakers, concerts by deceased singers, sermons by late divines, and galleries or museums "where spoken languages will be preserved from century to century with all the peculiarities of pronunciation, dialect, and brogue."

Photography has justified, nay, far exceeded, the anticipations that were formed of it when it first came into practical and popular use. The photographer is now to be found literally "in the heavens above, in the earth beneath, and in the waters under the earth." In our reference to aërial navigation we have shown how balloons, kites, and flying machines are utilised for photographic purposes. This is "in the heavens above." In our illustrated newspapers and magazines we have photographs of everything that is happening "in the earth beneath;" in 1895 M. Louis Boutan, dressed as a diver, descended to the bottom of the Mediterranean taking a barrel of oxygen gas with him, and succeeded in taking some photographs of the sea bottom and the vegetation that grows on the rocks, by means of a water-tight camera and a flash light—an excellent method of exploring coral reefs and examining the condition of substructures under water. The photographer is "in the waters under the earth."

We can only refer in this place to two of the many remarkable developments of photography—the Cinematograph and the Röntgen X-Rays. In 1887 the Zoetrope, or, "wheel of life," claimed the attention of Mr. Thomas A. Edison, the famous electrician and inventor, who has bewildered the world with his discoveries, and he determined to improve the old optical toy and make it a scientific wonder by reproducing to the eye the effect of human motion by means of a swift and graded succession of pictures. This he called the Kinetoscope. Later, instantaneous photography came to his aid, and these soon superseded the pictures. In 1896 M. Lumière, of Lyons, following on lines tending to the same end, produced his cinematograph—virtually a Kinetoscope, with the combined photographs projected on a screen by means of an optical lantern. Successive instantaneous photographs of moving events, such as wrestling, dancing, or the tumbling of acrobats, men at work, horse-racing, busy streets, or troops marching, are projected on a screen so rapidly that the image of one has not faded from the eye before the image of another appears, and so they are blended to the sight, and present an apparently perfect reproduction of moving scenes.

Then it occurred to Mr. Edison to link these photographic impressions with the phonograph in one combination, so as to present to the eye and the ear simultaneously the sounds and sights of passing events, and he produced that marvellous apparatus—exhibited in the Paris Exhibition, 1900—which goes by the name of the Kineto-phonograph. Its possibilities are almost inexhaustible.

Professor Röntgen, of Wurzburg, established a truth that had previously been investigated by such men as Clerk Maxwell, Heinrich Hertz, Lenard, and others, that it is possible to photograph objects without exposing the sensitive plate to the light. But Dr. Röntgen did much more than this; he made the original discovery of what he termed the X, or unknown, Rays; he was the first to investigate their curious properties, and to

make practical application of them, and he invented the first machine for photographing through solid substances, and more particularly for taking pictures of the skeleton framework of the human body through the flesh. On the 8th of November, 1895, he made his great discovery of the X-Rays, and within a few months all the world was wondering and experimenting with them. The discovery was almost as curious as the thing discovered. Professor Röntgen, who had devoted all his life to scientific study, mainly in physics and electricity, had really been producing and working with X-Rays, as others had done before him, but wholly unconscious what they were or that they really existed. The great discovery—one of the greatest of the century—was partly the result of accident, as so many other inventions and discoveries have been. On that November day he had been experimenting with a Crookes' tube, which he had covered with a black shield impervious to light, and had darkened the laboratory so that not a vestage of a gleam of light could enter. The electric current was turned on, but no light whatever came from the covered tube, when, to his infinite surprise, he saw something glowing on a shelf, and eagerly examining that something, he found it to be a piece of sensitive paper (barium platinocyanide). As it was impossible that any light could enter the room, he came to the conclusion "that certain unknown rays, whether of light or not he did not know, were actually coming through the screen, and giving the sensitive paper a distinct luminescence. It was contrary to all reason, to everything that the text-books taught, and yet he was forced to believe it. And having discovered the existence of the new rays, he began at once to experiment with them." *

THE KINETO PHONOGRAPH.

He found that the rays had totally different properties from ordinary light, inasmuch as the substances which are opaque or transparent to it are not the same as those to which we usually apply the terms, but often the very contrary—for instance, the rays would pass through a book of a thousand pages, or through a couple of packs of playing cards. Then he found that the rays affected the sensitive film of the photographic plate, and this brought him to the further and greater discovery that the rays, when passed through the hand, or any other part of the body, would imprint a silhouette, or shadow picture of the bones on the photographic plates.

* R. S. Baker.

The possibilities opened up by this new form of radiant energy, these "vibrations in the ether," are endless. The uses to which the new photography have been put are already numerous. Medical men can examine the skeleton of the living subject in a painless and bloodless manner, which was impossible before; and bullets, needles, splinters of steel, and such like, embedded in the flesh, can be located before extraction; broken limbs can be examined to see if they are properly set without removing splints or bandages, or, if necessary, the photograph can be taken through the bed clothes as well as through the bandages; the contents of a pocket, or of a purse can be examined through leather, wood, calico; the skeleton hand of an old Egyptian has been photographed through the wrappings of the mummy! On every recent battle-field in civilised lands the X-Rays have done excellent service, obviating the horrible sufferings formerly caused by probing for bullets and shot; and in every hospital they are in constant use. What the future of this mysterious ether will be it is impossible to guess; already it is employed to detect true gems, such as diamonds and pearls, from false ones; it has been used to photograph blood-vessels by injecting a mineral solution into them, and there are hopes entertained, even by physicians and scientists, that it may—although there is no proof whatever at present that it will—be applied to the killing of disease germs—as in consumption, typhoid, and diphtheria, and so effect cures in those devastating maladies.

Whether the horse as a motive power is to be extinguished; whether our vehicular traffic is to be entirely by automobile carriages and cars; whether half the work of the Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals is, in consequence, to be done away with, and whether our grand-children will live to see horses exhibited in museums as curiosities, and carriage whips become as extinct as snuffers, the Twentieth Century will probably decide.

Motors have come, and they have "come to stay." In America, France, and England, they have already become fairly established, and are used in many cities in lieu of the old stage-coaches, diligences, fire engines, gun carriages, ambulances, trucks, waggons, and carts. In 1895 there was the beginning of a great rage for motor-cars. In America and Paris long-distance races were in vogue to test the various motive powers, steam (produced by small petroleum engines), compressed air, and electricity, when steam proved to be the winner. It was not until the end of the year 1896 that in London motor carriages ceased to be classed as traction engines, and owners celebrated their deliverance from this yoke by assembling in large numbers in Northumberland Avenue and making a processional trip to Brighton.

What will be the favourite motive power in the future—whether electricity, gasolene, steam, compressed-air, carbonic acid gas, acetylene, alcohol, or liquid air—is the subject of much speculation. Up to the present time the motor-car, although an established appliance of every-day life, is only in its infancy, and France has chiefly employed gasolene vehicles, England steam vehicles, and America electrical engines.

The progress of the Arts and Sciences in the Nineteenth Century is as a perpetual fairy tale; and we have but glanced at a few chapters of the marvellous story. The discovery and application of acetylene gas, the finding out of petroleum oil-wells and the manifold uses of petroleum; the simple type-writing and sewing machines, that have opened up new industries and given fresh fields for the energies of women-workers; the

importation and storage of ice and the manufacture of refrigerators; the labours and experiments of such devotees to science as Lord Lister, Lord Kelvin, Sir Michael Foster, Professors Tyndall, Huxley, and Darwin, and a host of others; the splendid labours of archæologists such as Dr. Schleimann at Mycenæ and Troy, of Mr. Wood at Ephesus, of Sir Charles Wilson, Sir Charles Warren, and Captain Conder in the Holy Land under the auspices of the Palestine Exploration Fund, and of like adventurers under the Egypt Exploration Fund; the increase among the people of a love of travel and the great facilities for its gratification, offered not only by commercial firms, but by such institutions as the Polytechnic and the Toynbee Travellers' Club; the discovery of the function of dust in nature; the rapid progress of astronomical research, assisted by improved telescopes and photography; the theories of evolution, the germ theory, and the cell theory; the advance in physiological discovery, bringing us near to the solution of problems which have occupied the keenest intellects and the most devotional spirits of all ages; the ever-growing international traffic of mind between the intellects of all lands, prompted by the common interests and hopes of the world—in itself the highest outcome of scientific development—of these and many kindred subjects we must forbear to write, and sum up by saying with Sir Michael Foster that Truth is continuous and harmonious, that each new discovery is the offspring of something which has gone before, and will be the progenitor of something which is to follow, and that in science there is only progress, and, in the long run, only benevolent progress.

THE EIFFEL TOWER.

CHAPTER LIII.

QUEEN VICTORIA AND HER FAMILY.

1861-1900.

IT was not for many years after the death of the Prince Consort that the Queen entered again into public life, and even to the end of the century a certain gloom hung about the Court consequent upon the deep mourning which the Queen invariably wore, and the trappings of woe with which she surrounded herself. Between 1862 and 1875 she performed the melancholy functions of unveiling memorials of the Prince Consort at Aberdeen, at Perth, at Rosenau his birthplace, at Wolverhampton, at Kensington Gardens, and elsewhere, besides laying the foundation stone and subsequently attending the opening of the Albert Hall in memory of the Prince, whose costly monument it faces.

The first public sign of her renewed interest in outside affairs was in January, 1862, when a fearful colliery accident at Hartley, near Newcastle-on-Tyne, resulting in the loss of over two hundred lives, drew forth her deep sympathy. She dictated a letter to Sir Charles Phipps, addressed to the overseer of the mine, which was read to the mourners at a religious service immediately after the funeral. It ran thus :—

"Osborne, January 23rd, 1862.

"Sir,—The Queen, in the midst of her own overwhelming grief, has taken the deepest interest in the mournful accident at Hartley, and up to the last had hoped that at least a considerable number of the poor people might have been recovered alive. The appalling news since received has afflicted the Queen very much.

"Her Majesty commands me to say that her tenderest sympathy is with the poor widows and mothers, and that her own misery only makes her feel the more for them.

"Her Majesty hopes that everything will be done, as far as possible, to alleviate their distress, and Her Majesty will have a sad satisfaction in assisting in such a measure. Pray let us know what is doing.

"I have the honour to be, your obedient servant,

"C. B. PHIPPS."

Again in 1864, when the Bradfield reservoir of the Sheffield Waterworks burst and two hundred and seventy lives were lost, the Queen wrote a deeply sympathetic letter to the mourning survivors. This practice of sympathetic letter-writing on the occasion of great public calamity and in private loss, the Queen continued throughout her long life, and among her most notable letters are those addressed to Mrs. Garfield and Mrs. Lincoln, the widows of Presidents of America, and to Miss Gordon on the death of her brother, General Gordon.*

In the early days of the Queen's great sorrow (1862), her daughter Princess Alice, who had tended her father with untiring solicitude in his fatal illness, was married to Prince Louis of Hesse-Darmstadt, and there sprang up a correspondence between mother

* See page 664.

and daughter as full of tender beauty as can be found in the whole range of biography. In replying to the Queen, one of whose letters had been fuller than hitherto of despondency, the Princess wrote :—

"Try and gather in the few bright things you have remaining, and cherish them, for though faint, yet they are types of that infinite joy still to come. I am sure, dear mamma, the more you try to appreciate and to find the good in that which God in His love has *left* you, the more worthy you will daily become of that which is in store. That earthly happiness you had is indeed gone for ever, but you must not think that every ray of it has left you. You have the privilege, which dear papa knew so well how to value, in your exalted position, of doing good and living for others, of carrying on his plans, his wishes, into fulfilment, and as you go on doing your duty this will, this must, I feel sure, bring you peace and comfort." *

Landseer.

AT OSBORNE.

It was the custom of the Queen to spend some part of each year, generally in the spring, on the Continent, and in the autumn to make a prolonged stay at Balmoral, Scotland. Her first visit abroad after the death of the Prince Consort was to Germany and Brussels, and in subsequent years she visited Switzerland, the Italian Lakes, the South of France, Florence, and other places, generally travelling in strict incognito and observing absolute privacy at all halting places on the road.

We have referred elsewhere† to the various impotent attempts on the life of the Queen, but it may be noted here how remarkable was her immunity from accident of all kinds—only one or two approaches to anything serious having occurred during the whole of her long life. In 1863 the Princess Alice, in order to arouse her mother from the lethargy into which she had fallen, organised an excursion from Balmoral to Clever. On the way home the coachman lost his way in the darkness, the carriage was upset, and

* "Alice: Grand Duchess of Hesse-Darmstadt. Biographical Sketch and Letters," page 37.

† See page 282

the Queen was thrown violently on her face to the ground. She was severely bruised on her face, and her right thumb was sprained. Happily no further mischief was occasioned her. In August, 1875, when she was crossing the Solent from Osborne to Gosport, yacht, the *Alberta*, ran down another yacht, the *Mistletoe*, owned by Mr. Haywood. The owner was on board with his sisters-in-law, Miss Annie Peel and Miss Eleanor Peel, the former of whom and the sailing-master were drowned. The catastrophe was witnessed throughout by the Queen, who was on deck, and it was recorded at the time that her emotion during the scene was painful to see. The Queen's nephew, the Prince Leiningen, was the commander of the Royal Yacht, and his conduct of the vessel was the subject of much unpleasant controversy.

York & Son, Photo.

ALBERT HALL.

The marriage of the Prince of Wales to the ever popular and beloved Princess Alexandra of Denmark was, as we have seen, overcast by the cloud of melancholy that had settled on the heart of the Queen, as she watched the brilliant ceremony from the royal closet.

On the 10th of March, 1864, the first anniversary of the marriage of the Prince and Princess of Wales, their son and heir was christened in the private chapel of Buckingham Palace, the Queen being present. Her baptismal gift to her grandson was a beautiful statuette of the Prince Consort, with the inscription: "Given to Albert Victor Christian Edward, on the occasion of his baptism, by Victoria R., his grandmother and godmother, in memory of his beloved grandfather." Thus, and for many years after, every event of her life was tinged with melancholy.

It is true that in 1864 she appeared in public for the first time at a flower show in the Horticultural Gardens, where her deep widow's weeds contrasted painfully with the bright spring flowers, and that in the same year she allowed her birthday to be observed with some of the old ceremonies, but it was not until February, 1866, that she assisted at any State ceremonial, when she opened Parliament in person. "She came," says Lord Malmesbury,* "in a State coach with her eight cream-coloured horses, but entered by the peer's door. She was well received, but did not wear her robes, which were placed on the throne, and did not read the speech, which was read by the Lord Chancellor."

In that same year (1866), the Queen gave away her daughter, the Princess Helena, in marriage, to Prince Christian of Schleswig-Holstein-Sonderburg, reviewed the troops in garrison at Aldershot, attended the marriage of the popular Princess Mary of Cambridge to the Duke of Teck, opened the Aberdeen Waterworks, and unveiled a statue of the Prince Consort at Wolverhampton.

PRINCESS OF WALES AND DUKE OF YORK.

It would not be interesting to record in detail the various state functions performed by the Queen from time to time, nor to trace any further the gradual wearing off of the keen edge of her one immeasurable sorrow. Nor would it be morally healthful to dwell at any length on the many sorrows, anxieties, and bereavements that fell to her lot. We shall merely glance at some examples as we briefly chronicle the course of the passing years. It is the common lot of all who have large family circles, who stand in high positions, and are widely encircled by the love of kith and kin, to be subject to the inroads of the common enemy Death, and the Queen, in her person and surroundings, stands out quite exceptionally in this sad respect.

In 1868 she was distressed by the serious illness of Prince Leopold, and was shocked by the news that an attempt had been made on the life of the Duke of Edinburgh, who was on a visit to the Australian Colonies, and in New South Wales was shot in the back by a miscreant named O'Farrell. In November, 1871, came the alarming illness of the Prince of Wales, to which we have already referred.

A great blow to the Queen was the death, in 1872, of "her dear friend," Dr. Norman Macleod, the famous and genial Presbyterian minister, who in the early days of widowhood had been to her a source of great comfort and help. In the course of a letter to his brother, Dr. Donald Macleod—too long for insertion here but which has been described as "one of the most remarkable ever written by a Sovereign to and of a subject," and as "a model of sincerity, tenderness, and good taste, exhibited in an order of composition usually disfigured by artificiality both of sentiment and style,"—the Queen wrote :—

"Balmoral, June 17th, 1872.

"The Queen hardly knows how to begin a letter to Mr. Donald Macleod, so deep and strong are her feelings on this most sad and most painful occasion, for words are all

* "Memoirs of an Ex-Minister," Vol. II., p. 347.

too weak to say what she feels and what all must feel who ever knew his beloved, excellent, and highly-gifted brother, Dr. Norman Macleod. . . To herself, personally, the loss of dear Dr. Macleod is a very great one; he was so kind, and on all occasions showed her such warm sympathy, and in the early days of her great sorrow gave the Queen so much comfort whenever she saw him, that she always looked forward eagerly to those occasions when she saw him here; and she cannot realize the idea that in this world she is never to see his kind face and listen to those admirable discourses which did everyone good, and to his charming conversation again.

"The Queen is gratified that she was able to see him this last time and to have had some lengthened conversation with him, when he dwelt much on the future world to which he now belongs. . . All her children, present and absent, deeply mourn his loss. The Queen would be very grateful for all the details which Mr. D. Macleod can give her of the last moments and illness of her dear friend. . . ."

Another loss in the same year was that of the Princess Feodore of Hohenlohe-Langenburg, half-sister to the Queen, by whom she was held in close and affectionate regard.

In 1873 the Queen visited Victoria Park in the East of London, and received the Shah of Persia; the next year she welcomed to London, in a blinding snow-storm, the Duke of Edinburgh and his bride the Grand Duchess Marie Alexandrovna, the only daughter of the Czar of Russia. In the same year she received the Czar of Russia, who came over to settle a little dispute that had arisen as to whether the Duchess of Edinburgh, an Imperial Highness, should take precedence over the Princess of Wales, a Royal Highness. In 1876 Parliament was opened by the Queen in person with great pomp and ceremony, and the Royal Speech announced the bringing in of a Bill to confer a new title on the Sovereign—namely that of Empress of India, to which we have already referred.* The Prime Minister in introducing the Royal Titles Bill declined to disclose what the new title was to be, but it was understood at the time that the Queen had, ever since the Duchess of Edinburgh claimed precedence over her sisters-in-law on the ground of her Imperial title, desired to be styled Empress of India.

The publication of the first volume of Sir Theodore Martin's "Life of the Prince Consort," in 1876, involved the Queen in much private correspondence. In the same year she visited Whitechapel to open a new wing of the London Hospital which had been built by the Grocers' Company, and unveiled the Scottish National Memorial to Prince Albert in Charlotte Square, Edinburgh. One of the Queen's most loved and trusted friends, Lady Augusta Stanley, wife of the Dean of Westminster, was taken from her by death in the early part of the year.

In the following year, 1877, the Queen paid a visit to Lord Beaconsfield at Hughenden Manor, an honour she had bestowed only on three of her Prime Ministers, Melbourne, Peel, and Aberdeen.

A very dark shadow fell over the royal household in November, 1878, when information was received that the little daughter of Princess Alice, Grand Duchess of Hesse—the Princess May—had been smitten with diphtheria. Despite every care the disease spread; the Grand Duke and the whole of the family, save one, were attacked. Princess May died, but the Grand Duke recovered; and then the mother, Princess Alice, who had nursed her husband and children with the most devoted affection as one after the other were smitten down with the terrible malady, herself fell under the power

* See page 639.

of the disease, and on the 14th of December—the seventeenth anniversary of the death of her father—she passed away, to the unspeakable grief of the Queen and the Royal Family. She was a special favourite in this country, not only for her culture, her agreeable personality and her wide philanthropy, but from the devotion she exhibited in nursing her father and her brother, the Prince of Wales, in their long illnesses In a

THANKSGIVING FOR THE RECOVERY OF THE PRINCE OF WALES.
THE PROCESSION ON LUDGATE HILL, FEB. 27TH, 1872.

speech of condolence in the House of Lords, Lord Beaconsfield, in his dramatic style, described her as receiving the "Kiss of death" from one of her children, but in her biography* it is said :—"It is supposed that she must have taken the infection when one day, in her grief and despair, she had laid her head on her sick husband's pillow."

* "Alice, Grand Duchess of Hesse. Biographical Sketch and Letters." Page 375.

In 1879 the marriage of the Duke of Connaught to the Princess Louise Margaret, daughter of the "Red Prince," Frederick Charles of Prussia, was celebrated with much pomp at Windsor, and was attended by the Queen. In the same month she left for Baveno, on the Lago Maggiore. Later in the year tidings reached her of the death of the young Prince Imperial, who had gone out to South Africa to take part in the Zulu War. "Poor, poor dear Empress!" wrote the Queen, "her only, only child—her *all* gone!" And she hastened all the way from Balmoral to London to show her sympathy with the heart-broken mother. The remains of the poor young Prince were brought to England, and were interred at Chislehurst beside those of his father, on the 12th of July, the Royal Princes of England and of many other countries attending the ceremony, while the Queen herself went to Chislehurst to remain with the sorrowing ex-Empress during this trying period, so fraught with distress and misfortune to the Napoleon family.

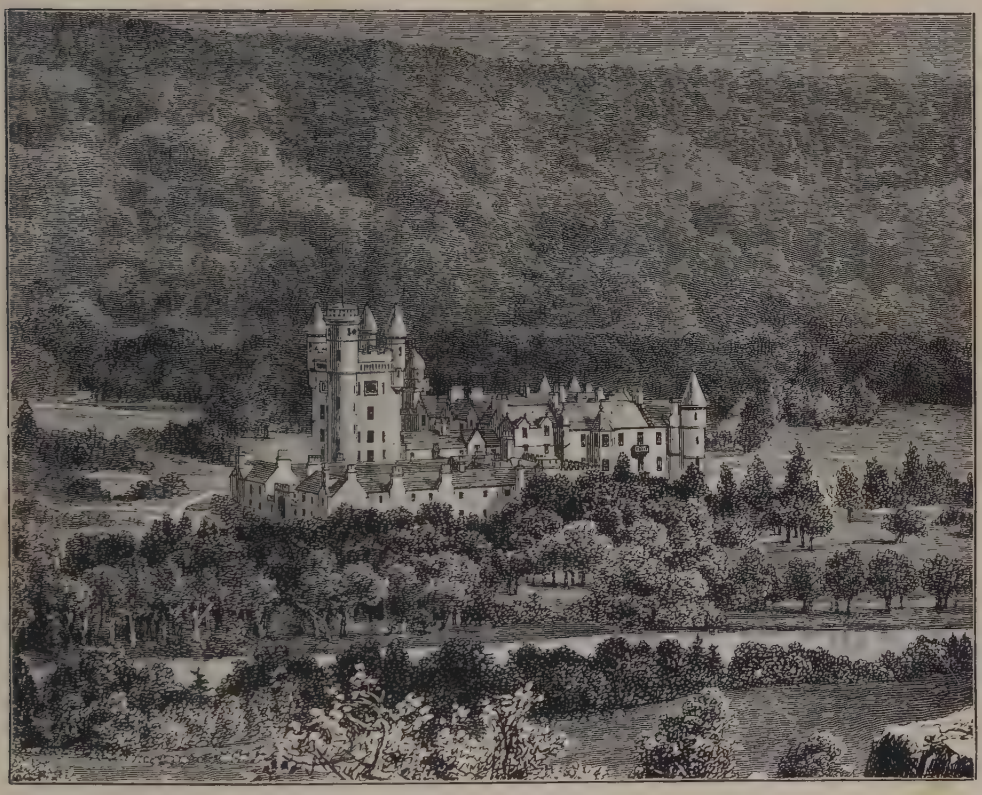
In the following year (1880) the Queen went to visit her relations in Germany, to pay a visit to the tomb of the Princess Alice on the Rosenhöhe, near Darmstadt, and to be present at the confirmation of her grandaughters, the Princesses Victoria and Elizabeth, daughters of the Grand Duke of Hesse.

It was not till 1881 that Court life fully revived. Almost every month during the season the Queen held a Drawing Room in Buckingham Palace, State Concerts became frequent, and a review of 50,000 volunteers in Windsor Great Park was a brilliant affair. In August the Queen visited Edinburgh, took up her abode at Holyrood Palace, and reviewed 40,000 Scottish volunteers. At Balmoral in the same year she appeared at some of the local sports, witnessing a cricket match and tugs-of-war with evident satisfaction.

In the early part of 1882 she made her spring holiday at Mentone, and returned to be present, on the 27th of April, at the marriage of the Duke of Albany with the Princess Hélène of Waldeck-Pyrmont, in St. George's Chapel, Windsor, the ceremony being with "a sustained pomp and splendour rarely seen even in royal pageants." It may interest our lady readers to know that the Queen, who was in excellent health and spirits, "was clad in widow's sables with long gauze streamers, and wore the broad riband of the Garter, and a magnificent *parure* of diamonds. The Koh-i-noor sparkled on her bosom, while her head-dress was surmounted with a glittering tiara girt by a small crown Imperial in brilliants." A visit to the East End to open Epping Forest, and a State visit to the Royal Courts of Justice were among the other functions of the year.

John Brown, who began life as gillie to the Prince Consort, and for nineteen years was in close personal attendance on the Queen, died in March, 1883. The Queen bore personal testimony to his high character in her "Leaves from the Journal of Our Life in the Highlands": "He has all the independence and elevated feelings peculiar to the Highland race, and is singularly straight-forward, simple-minded, kind-hearted, and disinterested, always ready to oblige, and of a discretion rarely to be met with." Through the Court Circular the Queen bewailed the "grievous shock" she felt at the "irreparable loss" of an "honest, faithful, and devoted follower, whose fidelity had secured for himself the real friendship of the Queen." When the Queen published, in 1884, a second series of "Leaves from a Journal," the dedication of the book ran: "To my loyal Highlanders, and especially to the memory of my devoted personal attendant and faithful friend, John Brown, these records of my widowed life in Scotland are gratefully dedicated." The life-size statue of John Brown, executed by Mr. Boehm, stands in the gardens of Balmoral on a site specially selected by the Queen.

Disastrous news came to the Queen in March, 1884. Her beloved son, the Duke of Albany, who had always been the weakly one of the family, had gone to Cannes for shelter against the harsh winds of his own country, and had taken part in the festivities at Nice with unusual interest. On his return to Cannes, when mounting the stairs of the Naval Club, he fell and injured his right knee. He went to bed, on the advice of his medical man, and conversed quite gaily with his friends, but in the early morning the doctor was aroused by the sound of his heavy breathing, and on going to his bedside found him dying in an epileptic fit. The shock to the Queen was naturally very great.



BALMORAL.

The body was brought to England under the personal direction and care of the Prince of Wales, and was buried in St. George's Chapel, Windsor, on the 5th of April. Prince Leopold was greatly beloved of the English people ; he was probably the most cultured of the Royal Princes, and it is said the only one who spoke the English language without a German accent.

The death of General Gordon in 1885 was the source of much anxiety as well as personal sorrow to the Queen, whose letter to Miss Gordon we have already quoted.* In that year Princess Beatrice, who for fourteen years had been the constant companion of the Queen, was married to Prince Henry of Battenberg, in Whippingham Parish Church, in the Isle of Wight. As the fortune of the Prince was insufficient to enable

* See page 664

him to maintain a separate establishment, he permitted the intimation to be made that he was to live with the Princess in attendance on the Queen. The Order of the Garter was conferred upon him immediately after his marriage and he was allowed to assume the title of Royal Highness.

The year 1886 was remarkable for the performance of many public functions by the Queen, including the opening of the Liverpool Exhibition and a visit to the Seamen's Orphanage; the opening of the India and Colonial Exhibition at South Kensington and the Royal Holloway College for Women at Egham; a review of 10,000 troops at Aldershot; attendance at a brilliant garden party given by the Prince of Wales; the opening of the International Exhibition at Edinburgh; a visit to the Duke and Duchess of Buccleuch at Dalkeith Palace; an inspection of the Hospital for Incurables at Edinburgh; and the reception at Windsor, with much ceremony, of the Prince and Princess Komatsu, of Japan.

HOLLOWAY COLLEGE.

Although the Queen entered upon the fiftieth year of her reign on the 20th of June, 1886, she declined to assume that she would live to the end of that year, and her Jubilee was not celebrated officially, therefore, until the 21st of June, 1887. As a matter of fact, however, the festivities began with the beginning of the year. India celebrated the Jubilee in February at a great Imperial festival; England began its preparations about the same time in arranging for the opening of town halls, town clocks, public libraries, drinking fountains, hospitals, and other works of public utility in honour of the occasion. In March the Queen went to Birmingham to open the new Law Courts in that town, and was received with an overwhelming ovation.

We must refer our readers to other sources of information for detailed particulars of the great functions, high festivities, notable speeches, and wide-spread sympathies which marked the Jubilee Year. They were worthy of a great nation rejoicing in a good Queen, and they partook, amid much gaiety, in expressions of devout thanksgiving for a beneficent life so mercifully spared.

Influenza made terrible havoc in the world in the early part of 1892. The deaths in London in the second and third weeks of January were 1,500 and 1,762 over the average of the corresponding weeks of the previous ten years. There were 5,000 deaths in London alone during the month of January directly attributable to the visitation, while tens of thousands of people were more or less invalided. Among the victims of the epidemic was the Duke of Clarence, the eldest son of the Prince and Princess of Wales, best known in Court literature as Prince "Eddy." He was on the eve of marriage with Princess "May" of Teck, and the calamity which substituted a funeral for a wedding excited wide-spread sympathy. The Prince was the idol of his mother, and his mother being the idol of the nation, the "tender-heartedness" of the people found expression in every possible form of sympathy. Not long afterwards (1893) the Princess "May" was married to the Duke of York, the brother of the late Prince.

THE ROYAL PROCESSION LEAVING BUCKINGHAM PALACE, JUBILEE DAY, TUESDAY, JUNE 21ST, 1887.

Sorrows multiplied as the years advanced, and the next calamity for the royal household was one that touched the Queen's motherly nature with a very keen anguish. The Princess Beatrice—popularly supposed to be the Queen's favourite daughter—had spent all her married life with her husband under her mother's roof. Four children were born to the young couple, and there was every indication that the home life was to be in the future as in the past—a very happy one. But with the outbreak of troubles in Ashanti, Prince Henry of Battenberg felt it incumbent on him—as the Prince Imperial of France had felt many years before—to volunteer for active service. He went, contracted malarial fever, and died. His body was brought home to England and was laid to rest in the little Whippingham Parish Church in which he had been married. In a letter acknowledging the universal sympathy in this sad event, the Queen said:—"I have, alas, once more to thank my loyal subjects for their fresh sympathy in a fresh

grievous affliction which has befallen me and my beloved daughter Princess Beatrice, Princess Henry of Battenberg. This new sorrow is overwhelming, and to me is a double one, for I lose a dearly loved and helpful son, whose presence was like a bright sunbeam in my home, and my dear daughter loses a noble, devoted husband, to whom she was united by the closest affection. To witness the blighted happiness of the daughter who has never left me, and has comforted and helped me, is hard to bear."

The celebration of the Queen's Sixty Years' Reign—the Diamond Jubilee—in 1897, can only be glanced at here. In February the Prince of Wales issued a statement with regard to the commemoration, suggesting the inauguration of a Hospital Fund for London—to raise a permanent income of £100,000 per annum for the London Hospitals—a suggestion that was very cordially received and has been admirably carried out. In April the Princess of Wales suggested to the Lord Mayor a scheme of dinners to the poor of London to celebrate the happy event. From all quarters, but in one spirit of good will, the whole country, nay, the whole Empire, devised plans practical and generous, to do honour to the occasion.

On the 20th of June a special Thanksgiving Service was held in all the churches and chapels in England and Wales to thank God for her long and beneficent reign.

On the 21st the Queen arrived at Buckingham Palace, and on the following day proceeded in State to St. Paul's Cathedral, where a Thanksgiving Service was held in the open air, outside the west entrance. The return journey to the Palace was made by way of the South of London. The escort consisted of British and Foreign Princes, and a splendid array of British, Indian, and Colonial forces. Included in the procession were the Premiers of the eleven self-governing colonies—Canada and Newfoundland, New South Wales, Victoria, South Australia, Queensland, Western Australia, New Zealand and Tasmania, the Cape Colony and Natal.

During the next few days the Queen inspected 10,000 school children on Constitution Hill, and 6,000 in the Home Park at Windsor, where also 1,500 firemen and 70 engines passed before her, and in the evening the Eton boys gave a torch-light tattoo. Her Majesty gave a garden party at Buckingham Palace; reviewed 30,000 troops at Aldershot, including the Indian and Colonial contingents; 300,000 of the poor of London had good dinners given them, in accordance with the scheme of the Princess of Wales, who visited three of the dinner parties. In August the Duke and Duchess of York paid a timely visit to Dublin—in short, royalty was "on show" throughout the year. Towards its close (November) the Prince of Wales's Hospital Fund reached the splendid sum of £158,751.

The year closed sadly in the royal household, and a deep impression was made upon the nation, by the death of Princess Mary Adelaide, Duchess of Teck, who was universally beloved.

In July, 1898, the Prince of Wales, while on a visit to Baron Ferdinand de Rothschild, at Waddesdon Manor, slipped on the stairs, and received a serious fracture of the left knee-cap. Superstition never dies, however high may be the civilization of the country, and many people, remembering the fate of the Duke of Albany—although the circumstances were widely different—prophesied terrible things, which happily did not come to pass. It was a time of anxiety, nevertheless, to which was added, to the Princess of Wales, the great loss sustained in the death of her mother, the Queen of Denmark.

The last year of the century, in which her Majesty celebrated the 81st anniversary of her birthday, was not an exception to other years in the royal household as regards personal sorrows and trials.

THE QUEEN'S VISIT TO IRELAND. CHILDREN'S DAY IN PHŒNIX PARK.

On the 2nd of April the Queen, notwithstanding her great age, and a certain amount of incapacity from rheumatism, and despite the fears which were erroneously entertained in some quarters as to her personal safety, paid a visit to Ireland, where she was received

with the greatest loyalty and enthusiasm, and remained for about three weeks. The day after she arrived in Dublin news came to her of a dastardly attempt, at Brussels, on the life of the Prince of Wales, by a wretched youth named Sipido, happily without injury to the Prince. Sipido, who was pleased to call himself an anarchist, was tried at Brussels, and was released on technical grounds.

A few months later (July 30th), a great shock of feeling was produced by the intelligence that the Duke of Saxe-Coburg, better known as the Duke of Edinburgh, the Queen's second son, had suddenly succumbed to heart disease—a malady from which he had suffered for some time. Prior to his leaving England, the Duke had taken his full share of the public work in which the royal family has been conspicuously zealous, and he devoted himself seriously to the naval service, in which he served for over thirty years, and fairly won for himself the title of "Our Sailor Prince." He was succeeded in the Dukedom of Saxe-Coburg by the Duke of Albany, then in his seventeenth year, the government of the country, until attaining his majority, being placed in the hands of his guardian the hereditary Prince of Hohenlohe-Langenberg, son in-law of the late Duke of Saxe-Coburg—the Duke of Connaught, the next heir, having, on behalf of himself and his children, resigned all rights to the succession. The body of the late Duke was not brought to England for burial, but was laid to rest at Coburg.

So closes a long list of sorrows and bereavements alternating with many joys and unexampled prosperity. When the long years of the Queen's great sorrow are remembered it is only right to call to mind how the untiring and unselfish labours of the Prince and Princess of Wales sustained the Court prestige of the country. For more than thirty years they upheld the traditions of the Court, and with ungrudging liberality performed the arduous duties which usually fall to the lot of the Sovereign. Few women in the world have ever won such enthusiasm as the Princess of Wales, whose charms remain undiminished by Time; and no man ever obtained such popularity as our future King.

We have in the course of these pages recorded many wonderful things, but the crowning wonder of the Nineteenth Century has been the protracted reign, the beneficent life, and the sustained moral influence of Her Majesty the Queen.

POSTSCRIPT.

From girlhood to old age the personal vigour and power of endurance of the Queen were remarkable, and when the century closed she was believed to be, by all save those who watched her narrowly and were in close attendance upon her in her home, in her customary health. But the excitement of her visit to Ireland, the loss of her usual rest and quiet on the Continent, and the grief caused by recent anxieties and bereavements—the loss of her second son, and the alarming illness of her eldest daughter, the Dowager Empress of Germany—had left their indelible mark upon her. The new century was not three weeks old (Friday, January 18th), when an ominous announcement appeared in the *Gazette*:—"The Queen during the past year has had a great strain upon her powers which has rather told upon Her Majesty's nervous system. It has therefore been thought advisable by Her Majesty's physicians that the Queen should be kept perfectly quiet in the house, and should abstain for the present from transacting business." This caused grave anxiety, and next day a further bulletin gave the first positive ground for alarm. It ran in these words:—"The Queen is suffering from great physical prostration,

accompanied by symptoms that cause anxiety." On Sunday and Monday anxiety grew intense. There were rallies and relapses. All the members of her family—including the Emperor of Germany—hastened to Osborne, where the royal sufferer lay hovering between life and death. And on Tuesday, the 22nd of January, 1901, at 6-30 p.m., she passed peacefully away, surrounded by her children and grandchildren.

When the news of her death came it was as a personal bereavement to almost every individual in the nation—aye, and in the Empire. Rivers of tears were shed; every household mourned with an acute sorrow; not a soul in the streets, however poor, but had some sign of mourning in his apparel, and, on the day of her funeral—the silentest day in the whole century—the manifestation of sorrow was so touching as to draw tears from the eyes of otherwise unthinking men. No woman was ever so tenderly and reverently loved; no Sovereign was ever so intensely venerated; and no monarch in the world's history ever exercised so powerful an influence for good as our own Beloved Queen Victoria.

Her whole life of eighty-two years was one long consecration to faith and duty :—

A thousand claims to reverence closed
In her as Mother, Wife, and Queen;

her throne—"broad based upon her people's will, and compassed by the inviolate sea"—had been "established in righteousness;" her reign had been fruitful to the happiness of mankind throughout the most brilliant of historic epochs; her name and influence held the British race together; and her Empire had grown in territory, population, and prosperity beyond anything that Statesmen of a century earlier could have conceived.

Now her long reign is over and is a memory only—but a memory glorious, inspiring, imperishable. "The Supreme Woman of the World," to quote the words of Sir Edwin Arnold, "best of the highest, greatest of the good is gone. The Sovereign most purely beneficent and beloved who ever held our sceptre or occupied a throne is now gathered to all the greatness and glory of the mighty and irrevocable past, but her influence will live on for ever and for ever in the undying pages of our History."

THE NAVY'S TRIBUTE TO QUEEN VICTORIA. THE TORPEDO BOATS LEADING THE WAY IN FRONT OF THE "ALBERTA."

CHAPTER LIV.

THE YEAR 1900.

IN a previous chapter* we have told the story of our relations with South Africa from early times, and of the uneasy feeling that had sprung up and rapidly grown between the Uitlanders and the Boers during quite recent years. It was inevitable that an open rupture must ensue, and the Boers were shrewd enough to spend much of the enormous sums that had accrued to them from taxation of the Rand Mines on the construction of fortifications and in the accumulation of arms and ammunition. In proportion as they were successful in this—and there was nothing to retard their success—they regarded the Uitlanders almost as a subject race, to toil and be treated as serfs, forgetting or ignoring the fact that it was their industry and zeal which had developed the mining interest that had brought about the great change in the financial condition of this governing caste of Boers.

In October, 1899, the hand of President Kruger was forced by his "colony of robber lords," who had grown turbulent and violent, to revolt against British suzerainty, and he felt himself compelled to defy Great Britain by proclaiming Boer supremacy in South Africa.

PAUL KRUGER.

A dispatch sent by the British Government to President Kruger on the 8th of September, suggesting terms for the settlement of the dispute between the two Governments, called forth an ultimatum from the Transvaal which caused all hopes of peace to vanish. It was couched in such terms as to make the immediate outbreak of hostilities certain. A telegram from Mr. Chamberlain, Colonial Secretary, to Sir Alfred Milner, High Commissioner for South Africa, announced its receipt in these terms :—

"October 10th. Her Majesty's Government have received with great regret the peremptory demands of the Government of the South African Republic, conveyed in your telegram of the 9th October. You will inform the Government of the South African Republic in reply, that the conditions demanded by the Government of the South African Republic are such as Her Majesty's Government deem it impossible to discuss."

The day for discussion had gone by, the day for the clash of arms had come.

The Boers were in a much better state of preparation for war than were the British, and were at once ready to take the field. Up to the last moment our Government had not seriously expected war, and had hoped that diplomacy might have procured a satisfactory settlement of the difficulties. Two regiments had, however, been sent to

* See pages 669—685.

LADYSMITH FROM CONVENT HILL
(LOOKING SOUTH-WEST).

Durban "to be ready for emergencies;" Colonel Baden-Powell had been dispatched to Bulawayo to raise volunteers, and 10,000 troops had been ordered to be sent from India, the Mediterranean, and England. On the 11th of October the Boers occupied Laing's Nek, a pass on the Drakensberg Mountains, which form the boundary between Natal and the Transvaal; the next day they invaded Natal, and on the 20th the first battle—the Battle of Dundee, near Glencoe, was fought, in which 4,000 Boers were engaged.

It is not our intention to attempt a history of the War which, when the century closed, was still in active operation. The events are too near at hand for criticism, and the results are not yet known. It may be well, however, to give, in the briefest possible form, some outline of the leading movements of the War to the end of 1900.

The object of the Boers in invading Natal was, as they boasted, to drive the British forces into the sea. Within a few days they poured 25,000 men into the colony, and surrounded Ladysmith, where Sir George White, who held the chief command in Natal, was shut up with an army of 8,000 men for seventeen weeks. It is a moot point whether it would not have been wiser to have withdrawn the British forces to the south of the Tugela River, but political considerations induced Sir George White to defend Ladysmith, and as the Boers could not advance far into Natal until Ladysmith had fallen, they were compelled to besiege the place. They kept up a furious artillery fire, and made more than one attempt to carry Ladysmith by storm, but, happily, their artillery did little serious damage, and they did not distinguish themselves when fighting at close quarters.

Meantime troops of all arms were being sent out from England, and Sir Redvers Buller, who was appointed to the chief command, arrived at Capetown on the 30th of October. It had been intended that he should, as soon as possible, invade the Orange Free State, and march through it to the Transvaal, but such was the state of affairs that the original plan was given up, and Buller set out with a large force for Natal, with the object of relieving Ladysmith. In December, in attempting to force a passage of two drifts near Colenso, the British relieving force met with a serious reverse and lost eleven guns, and in January, after Spion Kop had been occupied for a time, the position was abandoned as untenable. Towards the end of February Buller carried out a series of manœuvres which compelled the Boers to retire from some of their positions round Ladysmith, and on the last day of the month the town was relieved.

Almost simultaneously with the invasion of Natal, Boers entered Cape Colony, and began the investment of Kimberley and Mafeking. Both places, though ill-prepared to stand a siege, made heroic defences, and successfully kept the Boers at bay for weeks. At Kimberley Colonel Kekewich had about 4,500 troops under his command, and his efforts were seconded by Mr. Cecil Rhodes, who elected to remain in the town during the siege. At Mafeking, Colonel Baden-Powell displayed such resourcefulness and ingenuity in his defence of the little town as have made all the world ring with his praise, and though Kimberley and Mafeking were at times hard beset, the besiegers were ultimately obliged to give up their useless attempt to overcome the vigorous endurance of the garrisons. At both towns the civil inhabitants bore themselves with grim patience during the dreadful days of siege.

The Boer invasion of Cape Colony was conducted with less skill than their other enterprises. At the beginning of November they crossed the Orange River and occupied Colesberg and Burghersdorp, whence they issued passionate appeals to the Dutch inhabitants to join them in throwing off the British yoke. But the appeal came too late, for the Dutch knew that large reinforcements had already reached Cape Town, and that more troops were being dispatched from England as fast as transports could bring them,

and, however deeply they might sympathise with the invaders, they were anxious to save their own skins. The Boers had expected a general rising of the Dutch inhabitants, but in this respect were disappointed, though they received a good deal of secret help so long as it could be given without much risk. As soon as troops were available General Gatacre was sent to the north of Cape Colony to stem the Boer invasion, and Lord Methuen was dispatched to relieve Kimberley. Both Generals were unfortunate. On December 10th, Gatacre, misled by his guides, suffered a serious reverse at Stormberg, and on the following day Methuen was driven back from the Boer lines at Magersfontein with heavy losses. Four days later Buller was, as already stated, repulsed at Colenso. The news of these three successive disasters was received in England with characteristic calmness, and it was promptly decided to send Lord Roberts out to the Cape with Lord Kitchener as chief of the staff. Additional forces were raised, the City of London

CRONJE BROUGHT TO BAY AT PAARDEBERG.

formed and equipped a regiment of City Imperial Volunteers, and offers of very substantial help were received from Canada and the Australian Colonies and gladly accepted. The disasters of December showed that the Queen's Empire was a real union of hearts, and that the daughter-colonies of Great Britain were not behind their mother-country in their defence of the common flag.

Some brilliant cavalry exploits of General French in harrying the Boer invaders of the Cape Colony, were the only relief to these military disasters. For some weeks there was almost a dead-lock in South Africa. Lord Roberts arrived in Cape Town on January 10th, 1900, and at once began, without haste but certainly without rest, to organise his plan of campaign, keeping his own counsel, but steadily pursuing his purpose. At the beginning of February, General Hector Macdonald, who had assumed the command of the Highland Brigade—vacated by the death of General Wauchope at

Magersfontein—executed some movements that threatened a position the Boers had established to the south of the Modder River and compelled them to withdraw, thus apparently making the approach to Kimberley along the line of railway a matter of less difficulty. A few days later Lord Roberts arrived at the Modder River, and on the 11th of February began his advance into the Orange Free State with a force of 50,000 men. Within two days the Modder was crossed by French and Gordon at several points and five Boer laagers were captured. Then, by a brilliant flank movement, French advanced to the relief of Kimberley at the head of 4,000 horsemen. The Boers fled at his approach, and on the 15th of February he entered the town and the siege was raised. Four days later railway and telegraphic communications were restored.

The strong position in which the Boers under Cronje had entrenched themselves at Magersfontein was now useless, if not untenable, and Cronje determined to abandon it and hasten to the defence of Bloemfontein, upon which it was clear Lord Roberts was

THE MARKET, BLOEMFONTEIN.

intending to advance. But he was too late in moving, and found himself brought to bay at Paardeberg. For a few days he held out, hoping to be relieved by De Wet, who was trying to bring up reinforcements. But De Wet's efforts were frustrated, and on the 27th of February Cronje surrendered with 4,000 men. The news of Lord Roberts' great capture reached London in a few hours, and in the course of the next afternoon it was known that Ladysmith had been relieved.

Our losses in ten or twelve days had amounted to 1,500 killed, wounded, and missing, and the men who had come through the hard fighting needed rest. But Lord Roberts was soon on the move again towards Bloemfontein, and entered it on the 13th of March, when the British flag was hoisted over the residence of the President of the Orange Free State.

To establish railway communication with Cape Colony, and to clear the Orange Free State of the scattered Boers, next occupied the attention of Lord Roberts, and

entailed much desultory fighting, so that some weeks elapsed before an advance could be made to the Transvaal. Brandtfort, 35 miles north of Bloemfontein, was occupied by the British on May 2nd, and Kroonstadt on May 12th. A fortnight later Lord Roberts crossed the Vaal River, and on May 28th issued a proclamation annexing the Free State under the title of the Orange River Colony. A few days earlier the column under Colonel Mahon, dispatched for the relief of Mafeking, defeated the Boers outside the town. The next day Mafeking was relieved, and the long-suffering garrison and their gallant leader, Baden Powell, reaped the reward of their terrible struggle. The news of the relief reached London on the morning of Saturday, May 19th, and Londoners will

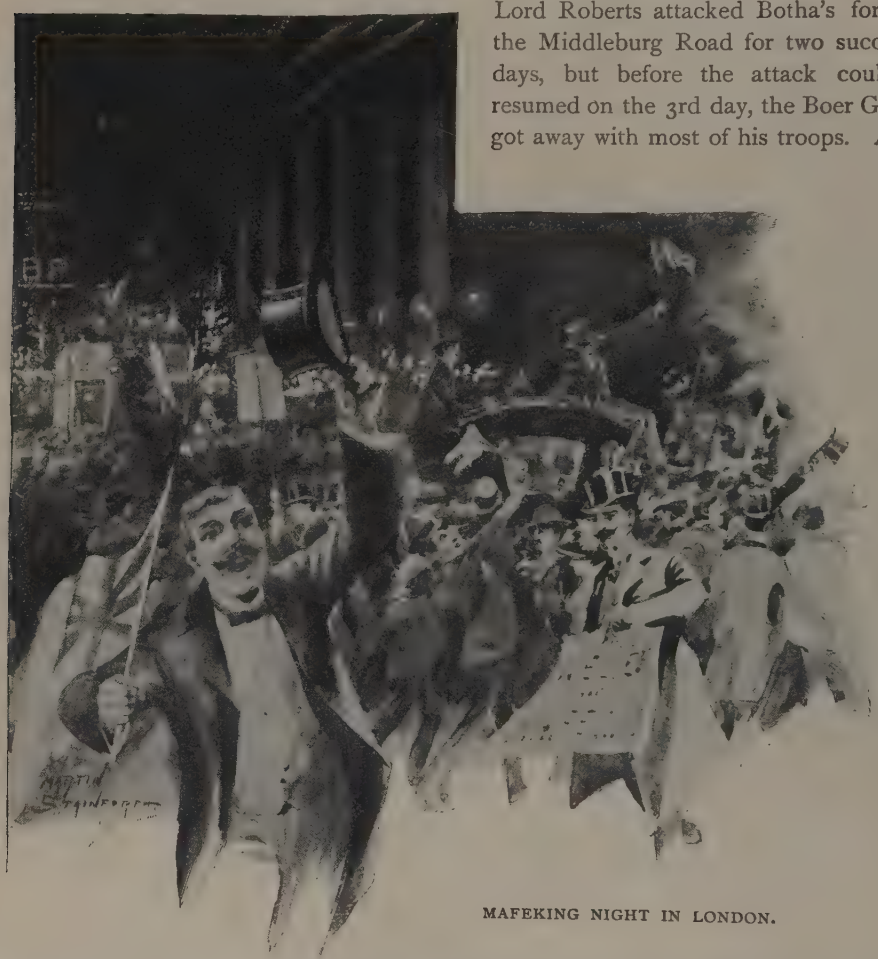
OLD POLICE FORT, MAFEKING.

not readily forget the scenes of wild excitement that followed. As if by magic, flags flew from every window and were carried in every hand, and in the principal thoroughfares of the city carriage traffic was suspended to make room for enthusiastic crowds who were almost mad with joy.

Everybody had anticipated that Pretoria would make a strong resistance, and would not be taken without a severe struggle. Mr. Kruger had talked about "staggering humanity," but on May the 30th he fled from his capital, taking with him all the gold he could collect. Lord Roberts entered Johannesberg on May 31st, and on June the 4th fought a battle at Six Miles Spruit, where a large number of Boers made a show of barring

the way to Pretoria. The Boers were defeated and scattered, and on the following day Lord Roberts occupied the Transvaal capital. He was at once able to release 48 British Officers and 3,000 men who had been taken prisoners by the Boers in several engagements.

In subsequent operations which extended over many weeks the lines of railway between Pretoria and Natal, and Pretoria and the Portuguese Frontier at Komati Poort, were gradually cleared of the Boer forces. In some instances the Boers fought stubbornly but often dispersed at the approach of the British, to assemble again and resume the defensive at a more convenient opportunity. Even when almost surrounded they often succeeded in escaping capture. Thus, early in June, Lord Roberts attacked Botha's force on the Middleburg Road for two successive days, but before the attack could be resumed on the 3rd day, the Boer General got away with most of his troops. Again.

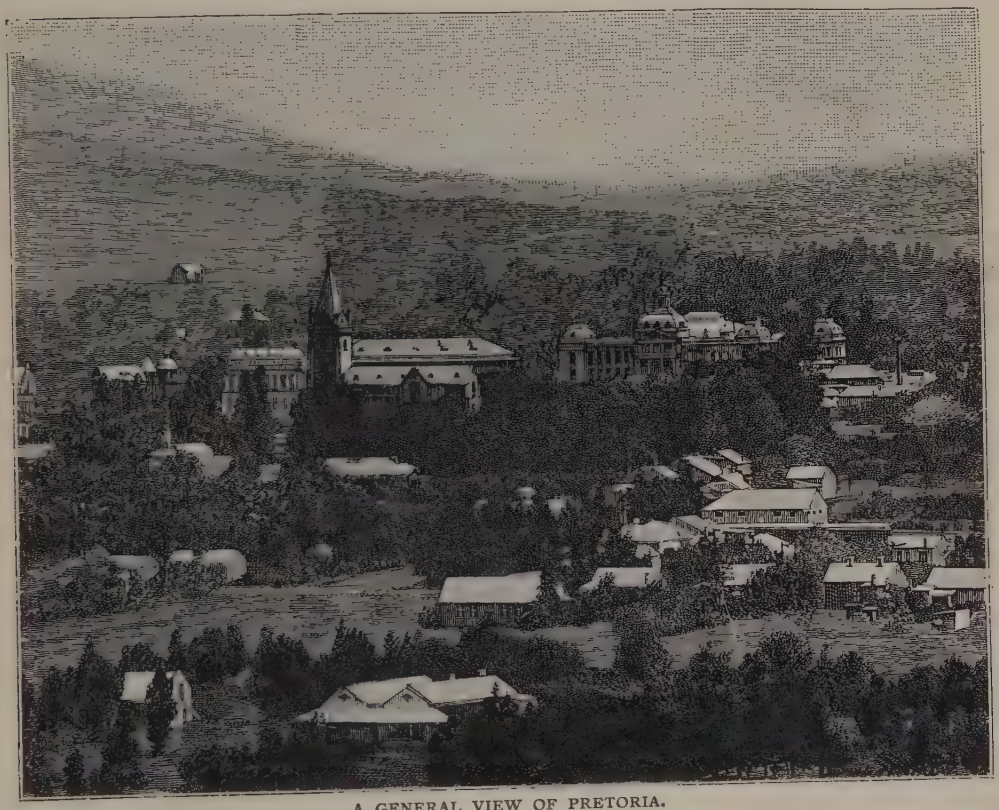


MAFEKING NIGHT IN LONDON.

in July, De Wet was, as was supposed, hemmed in by a British force between Bethlehem and Ficksburg in the Orange River Colony, but skilfully evaded his would-be captors. Yet, in spite of these and similar disappointments, such progress was made in the occupation of the Transvaal that on September the 1st, a proclamation was issued re-incorporating the country as British territory. On September the 6th, Lydenberg was occupied by Buller, who had some weeks earlier moved up from Natal through Laing's Nek to join Lord Roberts, and five days later Mr. Kruger, who for some time had been living in a railway carriage, decided to leave the country, and made his way over the frontier to a safe refuge

in neutral Portuguese territory at Laurenco Marques, prior to taking a journey to Europe to plead for an intervention of the Great Powers.

No sooner had Mr. Kruger arrived in Europe than there was a renewed outbreak of Boer activity in the field and of Dutch disaffection at the Cape. While the ex-President was playing what was regarded as his last card, and calling upon the European Powers and the United States of America—at a time when they were working harmoniously in the East—to interpose on behalf of the late Republics, it was deemed essential that the Boers should give proof that their vitality was not altogether extinct. A set of mercenaries and desperados therefore commenced a harassing guerilla war and scarcely a day passed without some sad reminder reaching us of casualties. Disease continued



A GENERAL VIEW OF PRETORIA.

to spread, and each week was adding appreciably to the enormous bills in the hands of the Chancellor of the Exchequer. In addition to this the public temper, which had remained cool through many reverses and defeats, showed unmistakable signs of impatience. Complaint was made of the severity of certain punishments inflicted, of failure in hospital arrangements and the general care of the sick and wounded, and of the prolongation of the war. It was said, and said truly, that it took many weary months and cost countless lives before our tactics in the field were adapted to those of the enemy, and the fear was expressed that we seemed to be displaying a corresponding slowness in learning the elements of guerilla warfare; that we had continued to march unwieldy infantry columns up and down the country without result, and had habitually dispatched convoys with insufficient escorts, and that if the miserable war was not to

drift on indefinitely, and if the Orange Colony and the Transvaal were ever to become fit for habitation, an entire change in our methods must be inaugurated without delay. Notwithstanding this, information was received that the position in Cape Colony was growing graver day by day, that in many parts open sedition prevailed; that De Wet was in vigorous activity, that raiding was taking place upon the borders, and that there was a very serious recrudescence of hostile feeling towards the British Empire.

And so things continued to the end of the year, and when the new century dawned it was upon fields of blood in South Africa and in China, and in Great Britain upon tens of thousands of broken hearts and devastated homes.*

The whole story of our relations with China during the century is an unhappy one. If China has "the heavy responsibility on her shoulders of having obstinately remained China when she might have been another Japan, the methods of her would-be guides along the road to modern development have at many times been such as their best friends would willingly forget." Our first war with China was altogether unjustifiable, and in the unequal struggle the Chinese showed an unavailing valour and patriotism that should have taught us a lesson. The lorcha *Arrow* War (1857)† was denounced in Parliament by Lord Lyndhurst, Lord Salisbury (then Lord Robert Cecil), and Mr. Gladstone. The war of 1859-60, resulting in the firing from the Taku Forts on the British and French envoys was, as Lord Elgin affirmed at the time, because we had no right to force a passage up the Peiho river until our treaty with China had been ratified. Politicians, diplomatists, historians, humanitarians, all united in denouncing the destruction of the magnificent Summer Palace—"the Chinese Alhambra, where all the artistic treasures, all the curiosities, archæological and otherwise, that Chinese wealth and Chinese taste could bring together had been accumulated."‡ For all our wars the Chinese have been called upon to pay in hard cash as well as in commercial and political concessions.

In spite of all this China has, during the century, "admitted ambassadors to Pekin, abolished the K'otow for the representatives of foreign sovereigns, sent ministers of her own to Europe, repeatedly decreed a toleration of Christianity, allowed consuls and missionaries to sprinkle themselves over the Empire, permitted travellers to go where they would, bought a small modern navy (and lost it), utilised to a certain extent foreign army instructors, connected every considerable city with the capital by telegraph—4,000 miles of wire have been put up,—voluntarily placed the collection of her customs in foreign hands, and built light-houses, established a Foreign Office, several arsenals and naval colleges, introduced mathematics into the Civil Service Examinations, permitted a railway to approach the capital, opened some three-score towns to foreign trade and water-ways to steam vessels, borrowed money in Europe (and never defaulted), started an Imperial Post Office and expressed a desire to enter the Postal Union, permitted the establishment and circulation of native newspapers advocating reform, and in the person of certain of her merchants has opened factories and acquired a steamship line."§

In 1897-8 a shake of the kaleidoscope brought about a strange spectacle in China. To avenge the murder of two priests by a native mob who had made a raid upon a

* An official statement issued by the War Office showed our total losses in the war in South Africa since the outbreak of hostilities down to December 31st, 1900, to have been 51,687. This huge total, it should be stated, included over 38,000 officers and men invalided home, many of whom recovered and rejoined for duty. The actual reduction of the military forces through the war was 14,880. During the period under review, 1,209 officers and 14,451 men were wounded in action, and about 8,000 officers and men were taken prisoners.

† See page 555.

‡ "The grandees hate us," wrote Chinese Gordon, "after what we did to the Summer Palace."

§ From the Century Number of the *Daily News*, December 31st, 1900.

German missionary station at Shangtung, the German Admiral on the station steamed into Kiao-Chow Bay, in the incriminated province, and took forcible possession of the harbour and its surroundings "in the interests of the German Empire;" Russia immediately followed the example thus set by demanding a lease of Port Arthur and Talienwan; Sir Claude Macdonald was instructed by the British Government, "in order to restore the balance of power disturbed by Russia's acquisition of Port Arthur," to obtain from China a lease of Wei-hai-wei, while France, not to be behindhand, took

AT LAST. THE FIRST OF THE RELIEF FORCE IN THE BRITISH LEGATION AT PEKIN.

possession of Kwang-Chow. In their own defence—for even the Celestials were wise enough to see that this system of seizing at will the ports along the coast could only be attended by the gravest danger—the Chinese "readily listened to the proposal of Sir Claude Macdonald to open three more ports, Yo Chow on the Tungt'ing Lake, Funung Fu on the coast of Fuhkien, and Chin-wang in the Gulf of Liaotung, to which, on their own motion, they added Wusung, near Shanghai. In addition to these new trade centres, three ports on the west river of Canton had already been declared open in compensation

for the British Shan territory of Kiang-Hung, which by a breach of treaty had been alienated to France."

Of course, an anti-foreign feeling grew rapidly and spread widely among the masses, while a deeper and even more dangerous feeling was entertained by educated Chinamen, and found expression in their newly-evolved native press. In process of time native organisations—secret societies, more or less—came into existence, for the purpose of creating, sustaining, and fanning into flame anti-foreign feeling. Eventually a body of men known as "Boxers"—an armed secret society hailing from North China—stood forth as representatives of the mass of Chinese opinion.

In May, 1900, a joint note from the Ambassadors at Pekin, called the attention of the Chinese Government to the dangerous doings and the threatening attitude of the Boxers, and a detachment from the fleets was sent to guard the Legations. Immediately after their arrival, the Boxers destroyed the railway and telegraph between Pekin and Tientsin, and commenced a reign of riot, looting and burning the European Club Houses.

Meantime Admiral Seymour, with a force of some 2,000 men, was on his way to the relief of the Legations, but after being repeatedly attacked, had to fall back towards Tientsin. That city soon became the scene of desperate doings, being attacked by Boxers and Chinese troops, and Admiral Seymour, having seized a Chinese arsenal above Tientsin, entrenched himself there. At length, when relief came, he threw himself into Tientsin, which was fighting for its life.

From Pekin news came of a very harrowing description. It was reported that the Legations were in a desperate case, and were piteously appealing for help. But their appeal was hopeless. The foreign commanders met in consultation, and came to the conclusion that Pekin must be left to its fate, and every effort be made to hold Tientsin, where a most serious conflict was proceeding between the European allies and the Chinese. The German Emperor offered a substantial reward for every foreigner rescued alive from Pekin, but the offer seemed to have come too late, as terrible rumours, of an unofficial character, were being received, which filled all Europe with horror.

At last, on the 8th of July, it was reported that a general massacre of all the foreigners in Pekin had taken place, including the members of the European Legations and a large number of women and children. A week later the evil tidings were confirmed by the Governor of Shangtung. On the 17th of July the *Times* and other newspapers contained long obituary notices of the British Ministers and Officers at Pekin; less responsible journals gave thrilling details of the massacre, and a memorial service was announced to take place at St. Paul's Cathedral, but was happily postponed. For within a few days strange rumours were afloat, vague and unsatisfactory, it is true, of news having been received of the safety of the Legations on dates subsequent to the report of the general massacre. At last (July 31st) the terrible suspense was relieved by the receipt of a message from Sir Claude Macdonald, dated "June 20th to July 16th," in which he stated that the British Legation had been repeatedly attacked on all sides with both rifle and artillery fire, that sixty-two persons had been killed, but women and children were safe, and the rest of the Legation all well. A further telegram from Sir Claude on the 8th of August confirmed the good news, and on the 15th some of the Allies—British, American, and Japanese—arrived at Pekin to find that all the Ministers were safe except the German Minister, Baron von Ketteler, who had been murdered in the streets.

To avenge the terrible outbreak which had spread with disastrous consequences into many parts of China, the Allies, consisting of Great Britain, Germany (whose motto was "No surrender and no quarter!"), America, Russia, France, and Japan, appointed Field Marshal Count von Waldersee, Chief of the German General Staff, to be Commander of the Allied Forces.

When the century closed the Chinese question was uppermost in all men's minds. No final decision had been arrived at as to the penalties and punishments to be exacted, or upon what terms the Allies were to stand.

The events that occurred between the outbreak of the war in China and the close of the century—like those in South Africa—are too near to us to be within the range of history. Whatever may be the conclusion arrived at in the early part of the Twentieth Century, it is morally certain that it will only be a temporary one. The Chinese people "do not want us, or our customs, or our religion." This, however, is not the place to discuss the question of either the commercial, political, or religious outlook in China in the future, but it is within our province to express the hope that some action may speedily be taken with regard to the opium trade, a question that we admit has two well-defined sides. But, "it is enough," to use the language of a recent writer, "to state the awful fact that over four tons of morphia for utilisation—in addition to native remedies—in attempts to cure the 'yin,' or craving for opium, or for injection in substitution for opium, were imported into China in 1899, and that the amount was nearly double that sent into the country in 1898."*

MR. CHAMBERLAIN.

The Australian Colonies after more than twenty years of consideration and political strife on the burning question of Federation, at length evolved a Constitution which seemed to a majority of nearly two to one to be a desirable form of government. In March (1900) five delegates, commissioned by the Australian Colonies to confer with the Home Authorities on any points of difficulty that might arise in connection with the passage of the Commonwealth Enabling Bill through the Imperial Parliament, were graciously received by Queen Victoria at Windsor. In May, Mr. Chamberlain introduced the Bill in the House of Commons, and it passed rapidly

* Century Number of *Daily News*, December 31st, 1900.

and successfully through all its stages in Parliament; the Earl of Hopetoun was appointed the first Governor-General of Australia, and it was officially announced that the Duke and Duchess of York would open the first Parliament of the Commonwealth of Australia.

The Federation of Australia became an accomplished fact on the first day of the Twentieth Century, and on that day a message from Queen Victoria was read at Sydney by the Governor-General in which Her Majesty expressed her earnest wish "that under Divine Providence the Commonwealth might ensure the increased prosperity and well-being of her loyal and well-beloved subjects in Australia," while Her Majesty's Ministers "welcomed Australia to her place among the nations united under the Queen's sovereignty, and recognised in the long-desired consummation of the hopes of patriotic Australia a further step in the direction of the permanent unity of the British Empire."

It may be pointed out that hitherto the various colonies were so completely independent of each other that, except for certain statutory arrangements, they were almost in the relationship of foreign countries. They had to proceed by ambassadorial methods in dealing with common interests, with no power of action unless when there was all-round agreement—a thing very difficult to attain, especially in questions connected with rivalries of trade, tariff differences, and so on. The effect of Federation will be to sweep away these hindrances and to unify the great branches of administration, working them from a common centre.

Under the new system each colony has its own local parliament: over and above these parliaments there is now a Federal Parliament, whose powers have been fully defined in what are called the Thirty-nine Articles—there are thirty-nine clauses to the Act. It has the British model of an Executive, and a Cabinet responsible to Parliament, and only retaining office while it can command a majority in the popular chamber. It has also an elective Senate, to be directly elected by the people on the broad principle permeating the scheme of legislation—one man one vote.

To provide against the possibility of dead-locks between the two chambers of government, as it was felt that a popularly elected Senate might possess an undue weight in a Constitution framed on the British model of responsibility to the working House, provision has been made not only that the Senate shall not introduce or amend money Bills, but that, in the event of any difference arising between the two Houses, and upon the Senate refusing to pass a measure already passed by the House of Representatives, the Governor-General may dissolve both Chambers. Under ordinary circumstances, members of the House of Representatives sit for three years and members of the Senate for six years. Should the Senate, after an appeal to the constituencies, still be recalcitrant and the popular Chamber still determined—a contingency not very likely to occur—provision is made that the two Houses shall sit and vote together on the measure in dispute. The number of representatives is by statute double that of the senators, and the vote of a majority will determine the fate of a Bill. This will secure finality in legislation as well as maintain the position of the popular House.*

Great Britain has already had ample proof that in times of distress and danger she can rely for sympathy and assistance upon the colonies, separated from us though they be by thousands of miles of ocean. But for the timely aid of Canada and Australia in the South African War, and the spontaneous manner in which they rallied to our side at a critical juncture, we might have been unable to extricate ourselves from an extremely awkward position. In the future Australia will not only be able to effectively defend her

* We have given the scope of the Commonwealth Enabling Act as defined by the Hon. Alfred Deakin, one of the representatives sent to confer with the Imperial Government.

shores, but because of her position, alike in relation to China and the Cape, she must be an important centre of influence. "The Empire will be strengthened by just so much as Australia is strengthened."

The Federation of Australia marks an important period in the history of the British Empire, and is fraught with immense possibilities for the future. It is a well-defined step towards the solution of a problem that has for many years been in all minds, Imperial Federation, "a firm and well-compacted union of all the British lands which would form a State that might control the whole world."

SIR WILLIAM LYNE, PREMIER OF NEW SOUTH WALES, SIGNS THE OATH OF ALLEGIANCE.

The story of the Disruption in the Church of Scotland in 1843 has been told in these pages at some length.* The result of that movement was that within a few days the Free Church of Scotland was formed by the Seceders, and four years later the United Presbyterian Church came into existence by the amalgamation of the United Association Synod of the Secession Church with the Synod of the Relief Church. These two Churches—the Free Church and the United Presbyterian Church—included in their membership almost the entire body of dissenting Presbyterianism in Scotland.

It has been truly said that there has always been "a terrible tendency to split in the Church of Scotland," but we have now to record a movement, originated in 1897, for bringing these powerful religious influences into one association, which should enormously increase their power for good. The negociations to this end were successful beyond the most sanguine expectations, and on the 30th of October, 1900, at the last Free Church General Assembly ever to be held, the Act of Union of the two Churches was adopted by an overwhelming majority—643 to 27. On that same evening the last United

* See page 414.

Presbyterian Synod met for a similar purpose, and when a vote was called the entire Court rose—there was not one dissentient voice, and the enthusiasm was irrepressible. Those votes meant that henceforth and for ever the Free Church and the United Presbyterian Church should be one, and should be known as "The United Free Church of Scotland."

Next day, at the Free Assembly Hall in Edinburgh, the Free Church officials met, and, headed by Dr. Ross Taylor, the Moderator, marched slowly down the Mound two abreast, while at the Synod Hall Dr. Mair, Moderator of the United Presbyterian Church, took his place at the head of the fathers and brethren, and that long procession moved off two abreast. Anon the two processions met, greetings passed between the two Moderators, and then forming four abreast—two Free Churchmen and two United Presbyterians—they all marched to the Waverley Market, the stream flowing on and taking three-quarters of an hour to pass a given spot. A simple ceremony followed in a vast building extemporised for the occasion. Dr. Ross Taylor rose, and addressing Dr. Mair said, "In the name of the Free Church of Scotland I offer you, honoured brother, as Moderator of the United Presbyterian Church, the right hand of fellowship, in token of the happy union now formed by the two Churches." Dr. Mair made a similar overture, and then the first assembly of the United Free Church was constituted with prayer. Thus was formed a Church, Free and United, destined, it is believed, to be a powerful influence for good, carrying with it the memories and best traditions of the separate Churches now merged into one Church.

The last twenty years of the Nineteenth Century—the chosen age of humanity and enlightenment—were marked by a succession of anarchical crimes, the most terrible in history. The origin of Communism, Socialism, Anarchism, Nihilism, all springing from the same root, though divergent and sometimes antagonistic in the ends they have pursued, need not detain us here. Their progress has been marked with deeds of blood, the victims being rulers of the mightiest States in both hemispheres, and they without exception, have been among the best monarchs and statesmen of their time. Speaking generally it may be said that "the sufferings of the proletariat, peasant and artisan alike, have increased with their numbers. Freedom has taught the myriads of workers new desires. Heightened intelligence has given them the power to contrast their own wretchedness with the seeming happiness of others, and a standard by which to measure their own degradation and to sound the depths of their own despair."

On Sunday night, the 29th of July, 1900, King Humbert of Italy, one of the wisest and best of monarchs, was assassinated at Monza, near Milan, by a miscreant named Bresci, an Italian anarchist, who shot the king through the heart as he was entering his carriage after giving away prizes in connection with a gymnastic competition. This was the culmination of the Anarchist Terror which for twenty years had haunted the very air of our high civilisation. That period began with the assassination of Alexander II., of Russia,* and President Garfield, of America. The next year (1882) the fifth attempt was made upon the life of Queen Victoria by a man named McLean at Windsor; Lord Frederick Cavendish and Mr. Burke fell victims to the knives of the "Invincibles;" and King Milan of Servia had a narrow escape from death. In 1888, attempts were made on the lives of the Ameer of Afghanistan and Pedro II. of Brazil.

* Alexander II., who was shattered to death by the bombs of the Nihilists, was he who had liberated the serfs and would have given a Constitution. Five previous attempts had been made on his life, and two attempts were made to kill his successor.

On the 16th of June, 1894, Signor Crispi, the Premier of Italy, was fired at in Rome, but the bullet missed its mark. A week later President Carnot, the Republican representative of the French people, fell a victim to the assassin's dagger at Lyons, his murderer being an Italian named Caserio Santa. The following year (1895) M. Stambouloff, an ex-premier of Bulgaria, was assassinated; in 1896, the Shah of Persia met his death at the hands of a Sayyid; and President Faure was fired at while driving to the Elysée. A further attempt was made on his life in the following year. In 1897, the life of King Humbert was threatened by an Italian working man, and in the same year Canovas del Castello, the Spanish Premier, was assassinated. In 1898, a thrill of horror ran through the whole civilised world when it was known that the beautiful Empress of Austria—unguarded by the sacredness of her sex, her beauty, her tragic sorrows or her spotless spirit—had been stabbed to death at Geneva by an anarchist named Lucchesi. About the same time an attempt was made on the life of King George of Greece, and, as if these things had only whetted the appetite for blood, a plot among Italian anarchists was discovered for the assassination of the Crown Prince of Italy when on his way to Vienna to attend the funeral of the murdered Empress of Austria. In April, 1900, an attack was made on the life of the Prince of Wales at Brussels, from which he escaped as by miracle, and then in July as mentioned above, the murder of King Humbert of Italy brought the list of fiendish atrocities to an end.

One common principle, or want of principle, ran through the whole series of crimes; there was apparently no motive or common-sense pretext for any one of them. The victims were good monarchs and statesmen; in no case was there any question of private revenge or a visible aim at any public good; the ruthless deeds were altogether irrational—murders for the mere sake of murder. Whatever the new century may bring forth one thing is certain, there will have to be combined action among all the monarchs and powers of the world in dealing with this red peril which still haunts the air and is, we admit, as difficult to grapple with as a breath of pestilence. But when an anarchist is taken in the act there should be such swift, condign, and fearful punishment that it should strike terror to the heart of every member of every fanatical society in the world.

Throughout the year the heavy cloud of War hung over the land, depressing everybody and everything, and blotting out interest in all other subjects. Nevertheless, it was a year in which many events of importance occurred. In January there arrived in Khartoum the first through train from Cairo. In that same month there was captured near Tokar the notorious Dervish leader, Osman Digna, the heroic defender of Plevna,* who did not long survive his incarceration, and died on April 4th. Again there broke out in India one of those disastrous famines, which have ever been the scourge of that country, and will continue to be so until the Administration arouses itself to a true sense of its duty. The Lord Mayor at once opened a fund for the relief of the sufferers, which in ten days reached the splendid sum of £100,000.

In April serious news was received from Kumasi (Coomassie) of a native rising, after an expedition had been sent to search for the "golden stool," or emblem of administrative authority. On the 23rd of June Sir F. and Lady Hodgson, who had been besieged in Government House, Kumasi, broke through the investing rebels with a bodyguard of 600 native soldiers, leaving Captain Bishop and a hundred soldiers to defend the fort. The defence was most pluckily and successfully carried on until relief came on July the 15th.

*See page 643.

In August great anxiety was felt at the breaking out of bubonic plague at Glasgow. Rigorous preventive measures were promptly taken, and were prosecuted with such energy and thoroughness that the dreaded malady was soon stamped out. It made its appearance later on in the year at one or two other places, but was met with similar stringent measures and with similar results.

The Paris Exhibition of 1900 was the grandest, most beautiful, most perfect of any Exhibition ever held in the world's history; it was superlative of its kind, and did much to sustain the tradition that Paris, despite its vagaries, is still "the centre of the universe." The construction of the vast series of costly buildings justified the claim of the French people to pre-eminence in varied and graceful ingenuity, while the artistic and mechanical completeness of every detail in the formidable task was executed with unsurpassed skill.

One of the great wonders of the Exhibition was the "moving platform," on which the visitor stood or walked and was carried to various parts of the vast grounds, being at liberty to step off at any of the stations—a structure which has suggested the idea that the problem of traffic in great cities may someday be solved.

Although so brilliant an artistic success, the Exhibition was, unfortunately, a financial failure.

PARIS EXHIBITION, 1900.
"THE STREET OF NATIONS."

We have told in preceding chapters the story of the "falling in love with the North Pole" in the days of Franklin and his successors. In 1898 there sprang up in the hearts of scientists an affection for the South Pole, and in August of that year an expedition for Antarctic exploration, splendidly equipped by Sir George Newnes, was placed under the command of Mr. C. E. Borchgrevink, an Anglo-Norwegian, who in 1895, when on a whaling expedition, had landed for a few hours on a low-lying peninsula at the foot of the giant mountains of South Victoria Land. In 1841 the intrepid Sir James Ross had discovered Victoria Land, with its great volcanoes, which he named

Mount Erebus and Mount Terror, and reached the latitude of 78° 10′, but no further scientific explorations had been made in those regions until 1898, when M. Gerlache in the *Belgica*, spent the winter within the Antarctic Circle, but without being able to effect a landing on the Polar Continent. It was reserved for the British expedition under Mr. Borchgrevink to be the first in the history of the world to pass a winter on land in the heart of the Antarctic Continent.

The *Southern Cross* sailed from London in August, 1898, and in February of the following year dropped anchor at Cape Adare, 2,500 miles south of Australia, where Borchgrevink and his nine companions, together with ample stores of all kinds, fuel, and built huts, were landed. On the 2nd of March the *Southern Cross* sailed away north, leaving this handful of adventurers to whatever fate might be in store for them through the cruel winter. It was a rough and hazardous time; various expeditions were

WINTER IN VICTORIA LAND.

made from the camp, attended with considerable danger; Cape Adare was climbed to a height of 3,600 feet: meteorological and other observations were regularly taken, and the lowest temperature recorded was 84 degrees of frost. For eleven weary, monotonous months, the expedition remained in this lonely position, but at the end of January they had the joy of seeing the *Southern Cross* re-appear off Cape Adare, and, after leaving plenty of provisions for future travellers, the expedition sailed south until Mounts Erebus and Terror were reached. Here Mr. Borchgrevink made a sledge journey to his farthest southern point—78 deg. 50 min.—the farthest south ever reached by man!*

The results of the expedition were:—to prove the possibility of wintering on the Antarctic land; to add several important details to the geography of South Victoria

* For full particulars of the expedition, see "First on the Antarctic Continent; being an account of the British Antarctic Expedition, 1898-1900." By C. E. Borchgrevink, Commander of the Expedition. (Newnes, Limited).

Land; to locate the South Magnetic Pole, and to make a valuable series of meteorological observations. It also served a great purpose as pioneer to the contemplated National Antarctic Expedition whose vessel, the *Discovery*, specially built for the purpose, was launched early in 1901.

When the Nineteenth Century began the population of the United Kingdom was 16,345,646, at its close it was 40,921,371. The population of the rest of the British Empire was in 1800, 2,500,000; in 1900, 256,000,000. The population of London was in 1800, 959,000; in 1900, 4,546,752. The area of London in 1800 was barely 9½ square miles; at the close of the century the area of London comprised within the boundaries of the London County Council was 118 square miles. "Greater London," practically non-existent at the beginning of the century, has now (1900) a population of 6,528,434. The trade of the United Kingdom (imports and exports) was in 1800 £67,300,000; in 1899 it was £814,570,000.

As regards the territory and population of the whole of the British Empire at the close of the century, the position is an altogether unprecedented one. A recent writer says:—"Including Egypt, which is a veiled protectorate; the Soudan, which is openly, frankly, and directly under British control, and the recently-annexed Orange and Transvaal States, over which Sir Alfred Milner has just been appointed Governor, the British Empire, at the century's end comprises an area of about 13,000,000 miles, and a population of about 440,000,000. The Transvaal alone is as large as Great Britain and Ireland. Without Egypt and the old Egyptian Soudan, the combined area of which is equal to that of India, the British Empire is thrice the size of Europe. The total area (obtained by adding Egypt and the Soudan) might be sliced into some hundred and eight States, each the size of Great Britain and Ireland. It is estimated that of the total area as above defined, over 4,000,000 square miles—equal to the combined extent of 33 territories each the size of Great Britain and Ireland—have been acquired during the sixty-three years since the accession of Queen Victoria. If, as is supposed, the population of the globe amounts to seventeen or eighteen hundred millions, it follows that for the material and moral welfare of every fourth human being in the world the British Empire is in some form responsible."

And now our task is done. We have told the story of the "life" of the most remarkable period of human history, the most wonderful of all the centuries, and have endeavoured to trace the chief lines of human endeavour; the changes effected in science, in the arts, in all possibilities of human intercourse; the extension of knowledge and the progress of thought. In the retrospect of the past hundred years there are many things still left to cause regret and fear—much cruelty, injustice, poverty, crime, and ignorance—but the century leaves with us a glorious heritage of hope that progress will continue that knowledge will grow from more to more, and that as

"God's in His Heaven,
All's right with the world."

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